DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 078 981 RC 007 088

AUTHOR Kleibrink, Michael Charles
TITLE Value Orientations of Retrained-Relocated Mexican-Americans.
PUB DATE Dec 71
NOTE 118p.; Master's Thesis, Texas A&M University, College Station

EDRS PRICE MF-$0.65 HC-$6.58
DESCRIPTORS *Community Influence; Educational Background; Family Influence; *Mexican Americans; Occupational Guidance; On the Job Training; *Relocation; *Social Influences; Tables (Data); *Values
IDENTIFIERS *Texas

ABSTRACT

Value orientations measured through status orientations were analyzed in an attempt to predict which participants in a training relocation program stay in the receiving community and on the job in an aircraft industry. Data were taken from a study of the occupational and personal adjustment of retrained-relocated workers and their families. Mexican American workers from the Lower Rio Grande Valley of Texas were trained to be aircraft assemblers for 4 weeks near their homes and then were relocated about 500 miles away to work. Personal interviews were obtained from 46 relocatees and from 44 selected relocatees who left their jobs and returned home. Three categories of relocatees were identified: stayers, returnees, and terminals or those who had quit but had not been interviewed after their termination. Results indicated that there may be a unique set of values associating certain classes of jobs and that these led to successful worker adjustment into similar situations, that anticipatory socialization was important in the adjustment process, and that educational orientations were important in placement while social orientations seemed vital to relocation. (Author/PS)

FILMED FROM BEST AVAILABLE COPY

ED 078981

U S DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH
EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF
EDUCATION
THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRO
DUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM
THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGIN
ATING IT. POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS
STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRE
SENT OFFICIAL NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF
EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY

VALUE ORIENTATIONS OF RETRAINED-RELOCATED MEXICAN-AMERICANS

A Thesis

by

MICHAEL CHARLES KLEIBRINK

Submitted to the Graduate College of
Texas A&M University in
partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

MASTER OF SCIENCE

December 1971

Major Subject: Sociology

CG 007088

VALUE ORIENTATIONS OF RETRAINED-RELOCATED MEXICAN-AMERICANS

A Thesis

by

MICHAEL CHARLES KLEIBRINK

Approved as to style and content by:

David C. Pierce
(Chairman of Committee)

Bruce W. Nelson
(Head of Department)

W. P. Kuentzy
(Member)

(Member)

December 1971

1222201

ABSTRACT

Value Orientations of Retrained-Relocated Mexican-Americans

(December 1971)

Michael Charles Kleibrink, B.S. Texas A&M University

Directed by: Dr. David C. Ruesink

In an attempt to predict which participants in a training relocation program stay in the receiving community and on the job in an aircraft industry, the value orientations as measured through status orientations were analyzed in a post-factum analysis. The major proposition discussed was that successful relocatees will be more likely to subscribe to the universal-achievement value pattern than those relocatees who return to their sending community while the returnees will be more likely than stayers to follow a particularistic-ascriptive pattern set.

The data used in this analysis were taken from a study of the occupational and personal adjustment of retrained-relocated workers and their families. Under a MDTA contract, 684 men from the Lower Rio Grande Valley of Texas (Cameron, Willacy, Hidalgo and Starr Counties) were trained for four weeks in South Texas near their home to be aircraft assemblers; they were then relocated about 500 miles away in the Dallas-Fort Worth area where they began work for Vaught Aeronautics Division of Ling-Temco-Vought (LTV). Personal interviews were obtained from 46 relocatees who moved during May 1968 and from 44 selected

relocatees who left the Dallas area and returned to South Texas.

Four basic elements were used to determine the relocatees value orientations: occupational orientations, educational orientations, social orientations, and the hierarchical ordering of three social objects (occupation, education, and family) on an eight item rank-order scale. Three categories of relocatees were identified: stayers, those who were still on the job at LTV on June 1, 1970; returnees, those relocatees who were located in the sending community after quitting their job at LTV; and terminals, those relocatees who had quit their job at LTV before June 1, 1970, but who had not been interviewed after their termination. Cumulative frequency distributions of each of the latter two classes was compared against the stayer class for each of the four elements described above using a Kolmogorov Smirnov goodness of fit test. Each of the four components were then evaluated separately.

Results indicate that stayers occupational orientations are not higher than returnees but follow a consistent pattern of occupations quite similar to the job to which they relocated. Returnees, on the otherhand, tended to hold occupational orientations quite different from the LTV job. Educational orientations of stayers were found to be significantly higher than those of returnees. Few differences were found in the social orientations of stayers and returnees, but those returnees questioned did rank family higher than occupation and education while stayers ranked it lower, as predicted. Analysis

of eight point hierarchy scores, however, indicated that more stayers than returnees had a very low score indicating strong emphasis on the family and little to occupation or education.

The author concludes that there may be a unique set of values associating certain classes of jobs and that these values lead to successful adjustment of workers into similar job situations. The author also concludes that anticipatory socialization plays a major role in the adjustment of one community situation to another. The data used in this thesis are not sufficient to evaluate the value framework presented. Implications for policy makers are, however, evident in that workers should be put in work situations that are familiar to them if possible. Educational orientations are important in placing trainees into programs while social orientations still seem vital to relocation.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I am most appreciative of the enormous help I received in developing this thesis. First, I am most grateful to the men involved in the LTV Training Relocation Project, including officials, counselors, and especially, the relocatees themselves, for without them this study would not exist. More important, many of the relocatees took me into their homes and gave more than was asked; these families gave friendship which I cherish.

Special recognition also goes to Dr. David Ruesink, my thesis director, who gave me freedom and encouragement to develop new ideas; to Dr. William Kuvlesky who gave much guidance and understanding to both this thesis and to me as a student and colleague; and to Dr. William Smith who served as the third member of my committee. I also thank my fellow sociologists - Tom Batson, Nelson Jacob, Howard Ladewig, Pat Guseman, Kathy Dietrich and all the other sojourners of this endeavor. To M. B. Flippen, III; my neighbor friend, and colleague; and to all our brothers for their concern and prayers I am most indebted.

Most of the keypunching of data was directed by Mrs. Carolyn Rose who saved precious hours and gave much joy. Likewise, the typing of rough drafts by the Rural Sociology secretaries at Texas A&M University is most appreciated. In the typing of manuscripts, coding of data, and editing my poor writing, special recognition goes to Mrs. Pixie Christiansen.

I thank my parents, Mr. and Mrs. August Kleibrink, for the years of guidance and understanding that brought me this far, and Mr. and Mrs. Darrel Haught for their encouragement. Finally, for the reasons to begin and the patience to finish this and other major efforts, I thank my wife, Linda, and our son, Trent.

"We give thanks to God always for you all making mention of you in our prayers; Remembering without ceasing your work of faith and labour of love, and patience of hope in Our Lord Jesus Christ, in the sight of God and our Father;" (I Thessalonians 1:2-3).

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ABSTRACT	iii
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	vi
LIST OF TABLES	xi
LIST OF FIGURES	xiii
INTRODUCTION	1
Manpower Policy in the United States	2
The LTV Project	3
FRAMEWORK FOR RESEARCH	7
Value Orientations	8
Pattern Variables	9
Modality of Objects	12
Aspirations	14
Hierarchy of Social Objects	14
Geographic Mobility	15
The Sending Situation	15
The Receiving Situation	17
Research Objectives	18
REVIEW OF LITERATURE	20
Cultural Orientations in America	20
Variations in Values	20
Values and Migration	22
Occupational Orientations	24

TABLE OF CONTENTS, CONT'D.

	Page
Educational Orientations	26
Social Relationships	28
Summary	30
METHODS AND PROCEDURES	32
Source of Data	32
Dependent Variable	34
Independent Variables	35
Occupational Orientations	35
Educational Orientations	37
Social Orientations	38
Hierarchy of Social Objects	40
Statistical Tests	41
Sample	42
Limitations of Data	43
ANALYSIS	44
Occupational Orientations	44
Last Regular Job	44
Job Sought	47
Occupational Aspirations	49
Educational Orientations	52
Educational Attainment	52
Educational Plans and Aspirations	54
Social Orientations	59

TABLE OF CONTENTS, CONT'D.

Page

Family Orientations 59

Residential Orientations 61

Community Orientations 61

Hierarchy of Social Objects 66

CONCLUSIONS 69

IMPLICATIONS 76

REFERENCES 83

APPENDICES:

A: Basic Characteristics of the Sample 95

B: Original Classification Scale 100

C: Excerpts from the Research Instrument 102

VITA 105

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE		Page
1.	Relocatee Status Two Years After Relocation by Last Regular Job	46
2.	Relocatee Status Two Years After Relocation by Job Sought Before Entering the LTV Program	48
3.	Relocatee Status Two Years After Relocation by Occupational Aspirations One Month After Relocation	50
4.	Relocatee Status Two Years After Relocation by Last Grade of School Completed	53
5.	Relocatee Status Two Years After Relocation by Previous Special Training	55
6.	Relocatee Status Two Years After Relocation by Plans for Further Education	56
7.	Relocatee Status Two Years After Relocation by Level of Educational Aspirations	58
8.	Relocatee Status Two Years After Relocation by Marital Status at Time of Relocation	60
9.	Relocatee Status Two Years After Relocation by Number of Dependents at Time of Relocation for Married Respondents	60
10.	Relocatee Status Two Years After Relocation by Housing Arrangements Before Entering the Training Program	63
11.	Relocatee Status Two Years After Relocation by Frequency of Visitation During the First Six Months After Relocation	63
12.	Relocatee Status Two Years After Relocation by Community Residential Preference Shifts at Different Hourly Wage Levels	65

LIST OF TABLES, CONT'D.

		Page
13.	Relocatee Status Two Years After Relocation by Mean Rank of Three Social Objects	68
14.	Relocatee Status Two Years After Relocation by Value Hierarchy Scores	68
15.	Age Groupings of Total Sample at Time of Relocation	95
16.	Marital Status of Total Sample and South Texas Males with Spanish Surnames	96
17.	Number of Dependents for the Sample Population	97
18.	Years of School Completed for Sample Population and for South Texas Males with Spanish Surnames	97
19.	Last Regular Employment for Sample Population and for South Texas Males	98
20.	Last Wage for the Sample Population	99
21.	Number of Weeks That Relocatees Had Been Unemployed During the Year Prior to Their Relocation	99
22.	Respondents by Level of Job Sought	101
23.	Respondents by Level of Occupational Aspirations.	101

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURE		Page
1.	Relative Locations of Supply and Receiving Communities	4
2.	Social Objects and Socially Structured Situation	8
3.	Value Orientations and Socially Structured Situation	8
4.	Pattern Variables and Communities	10
5.	Pattern Variables and The Rural-Urban Continuum.	11
6.	Social Objects and the Rural-Urban Continuum....	12
7.	Value Orientations and Geographic Mobility.....	16
8.	Goal Level Categories Used in the Analysis of Occupational Orientations.....	100

INTRODUCTION

There will probably never be a time when there are no inequalities in the American work system (Weiss and Riesman, 1966). The constant changing of our economic structure will require constant changing of the work structure. Changes in the demand for certain goods or services will require reorientation and often physical movement of part of the work force. Unequal development of different segments of the society will create a high demand for labor in the more progressive areas while those that develop more slowly will have an overabundance of manpower.

In the past, these inequalities have resulted in a great deal of physical movement by the population of this nation. Almost twenty-eight million people in the United States migrated to a different county between 1955 and 1960 (United States Census, 1960a). Indeed, much of this movement occurs between rural and urban places: a net of about twenty-two million people moved from rural to urban places in the 1940's and 1950's (Maitland and Knebel, 1968). Rapidly developing technology has pushed many young people out of agriculture related occupations into the large cities where unskilled and semi-skilled jobs are supposed to be more plentiful. Bishop (1967) suggests that one million people per year moved off farms in the 1950's.

The format and citations of this thesis follow those of the American Sociological Review.

Many rural-urban migrants probably find jobs relatively soon after they arrive in the city, but many more never find jobs at all, or find only subsistence level jobs. Lack of knowledge about job opportunities is one of the major reasons for the poor adjustment between rural and urban labor markets (Heady, 1949). Eighty-five percent of the manual workers in one New England community were found to have discovered their job through random selection or chance personal contacts (Reynolds and Shister, 1949).

Manpower Policy in the United States

In the early 1960's the federal government committed itself to the development of an active manpower policy. The major goal of this policy was to be the conservation of this nation's manpower. This meant raising the level of competence of the labor force to meet the needs of rapidly developing technology; matching workers to jobs that were available; developing jobs where excess labor occurred; and moving workers to where jobs were plentiful.

Worker relocation has always been an economic tool. "It has repeatedly been used by those managers who are clever enough to know how to use it when they needed it," (Blue, 1969). It has not been used recently as a tool for public use primarily because of feared political consequences. In 1965, however, a demonstration mobility program was approved because there were many areas with high unemployment rates and many underemployed workers who are willing to relocate

but lacked the facilities to make the move. Most unemployed and underemployed people do not have sufficient funds to move their families any great distance.

While some of the workers who were relocated were able to adjust to their new home, many could not cope with the problems of their new situation. Regardless of the success of these programs, geographic mobility among certain segments of our society's population is inevitable. It is imperative then that a model be developed which will aid policy makers in coordinating all forms of labor relocation.

The purpose of this thesis is to develop a model based on value orientations which can be used as a predictor of successful geographic mobility. The model will, furthermore, be used in a post factum analysis of information gathered on a small group of relocated workers in Texas. More precisely the relation of occupational, educational, and family orientations to geographic mobility will be analyzed.

The LTV Project

In Texas much of the unemployment problem is concentrated near the Mexican border. In 1966 the lower Rio Grande Valley of Texas[1] had an average unemployment rate greater than 6.0 percent while the rest of the state was enjoying relative prosperity (the Dallas- Fort Worth area, for example, had a 2.5 percent rate for that same period) according to the U. S. Department of Labor (1967).

[1] This is the region from Brownsville to Rio Grande City containing Cameron, Willacy, Hidalgo, and Starr Counties (See Figure 1).

Figure 1. Relative Locations of Supply and Receiving Communities

Under incentives offered by the 1965 Manpower Act, Vought Aeronautics Division of Ling-Temco-Vought (LTV) decided that a modular training unit - a school temporarily established in a locality of high unemployment - was the solution to its manpower needs. At the suggestion of the Texas Employment Commission and the Federal Bureau of Employment Security, the unit was located in the Rio Grande Valley of Texas (See Figure 1). A program was developed to train 750 men as aircraft assemblers in the Valley, then relocate them to the Dallas-Fort Worth area to work at LTV's plant in Grand Prairie. About 90 percent of this group were Mexican-Americans.[2]

Actually three training centers were set up - at Harlingen, McAllen, and Rio Grande City. A class of fifteen men were started at one of the centers each week and lasted four weeks. Workers were instructed in sheet metal work including drilling holes, shooting rivets, and measuring sheet metal to be cut. In addition, the men were counseled about what to expect in their new community. They were shown slides of potential housing and other interesting facts about the Dallas-Fort Worth area.

During this four-week period each trainee received a subsistence allowance to help provide for his family. At the end of the four

---

[2]The term Mexican-American is used in this thesis to designate those persons of Mexican or Spanish ancestry. Terms such as Chicano, Spanish Americans, Mexicans, Spanish Surnameds, etc. are used interchangeably to designate this group. For a complete bibliography of Studies of Mexican-Americans, see Saldana (1969).

weeks of formal training the worker and his family moved to the Dallas-Fort Worth area. Upon arrival in Grand Prairie each worker reported to the Texas Employment Commission (TEC) to collect an allowance to offset the cost of moving and be shown possible housing. TEC attempted to offer each worker a selection of potential housing but usually were able only to locate a couple of alternatives.

After getting settled each man reported to LTV where he received eight weeks of on-the-job training. During this time each worker was paid $2.38 or more per hour. In addition, with funds from the contract LTV provided three counselors to aid the worker and his family with any crisis that might arise in the worker's new community.

Six hundred and eighty-four (684) workers were trained and relocated during the fifty-two weeks that the program was operating. Ninety-three (93) percent of the group remained on the job at LTV for the first sixty days, and fifty-five (55) percent of the relocatees were still working for LTV on June 1, 1970. The North Carolina Mobility Project, a similar demonstration program, claims one year retention rates from 33 to 50 percent (Davis, 1966). Even though some of those who terminated from the program stayed in the Dallas area (the receiving community) or moved to some other metropolitan center, some of the workers who left their jobs returned to the sending community to live.

FRAMEWORK FOR RESEARCH

Before worker relocation programs can be used on any large-scale basis, some means must be developed for projecting which individuals will relocate successfully and which will eventually return to their old home regretting ever having left. In this section a conceptual scheme for analyzing the relationship between successful geographic mobility and value orientations will be developed from an action frame of reference. Much of the scheme will be derived from Parsons (1951) and a framework for analyzing status orientations of youth developed by Kuvlesky (1966) and used extensively by Ohlendorf (1967) and Juarez (1968).

The attempt to restructure existing conditions within the labor markets of two geographic areas form an action system. The minimum essential elements of such a system are an actor and a social object.

The actor element can be any acting unit such as an organization, an institution, or a single person. Since each of these groups are composed of individuals, the unit of observation will be the singular person. The actor for this analysis will be the individual participant in a labor mobility program.

Social objects vary in kind and level. Some objects are individuals, some are status positions and some are social systems. Certain of each type are primarily a source of ascribed identification. Two such objects at the system level of analysis include

community of residence origin and family. Other objects, especially status positions such as occupation and education provide achieved identification. When grouped together the various social objects define a structured situation (Figure 2).

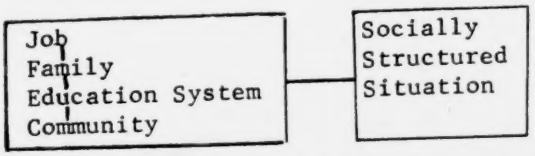

Figure 2. Social Objects and Socially Structured Situation

Value Orientations

The relationship between the actor and social objects is defined by value orientations (Parsons, 1967). A value orientations, according to Rokeach (1969:160) "is a single belief that transcendentally guides actions and judgments across specific objects and situations, and beyond immediate goals to more ultimate end-states of existence." Value orientations define the relationship between the actor and several social objects composing a situation. Thus, value orientations define the meaning that a particular situation will have for the actor (Figure 3).

Actor _____ Value Orientations _____ Situation

Figure 3. Value Orientations and Socially Structured Situation

Pattern Variables

Value orientations are differentiated by Parsons (1951) in terms of a set of dichotomous alternatives called pattern variables. The actor must choose between the two elements of each dichotomy before the object has determinate meaning. There are five pattern variable dichots according to Parsons and Shils (1951): (1) affectivity vs. effective-neutrality, (2) self-orientation vs. collective-orientation, (3) specificity vs. diffuseness, (4) universalism vs. particularism, and (5) achievement vs. ascription.

While several of the pattern variable choices tend to cluster, the combinations of the pattern variables universalistic-achievement and particularistic-ascription (Figure 4) define principle types of communities (Juarez, 1968). The universalistic-achievement pattern defines orientations common to modern industrial communities where relations are guided by formal, impersonal, legalistic, objectified, rationalized, and universal codes and standards (Dobriner, 1969). In this situation the primary meaning of social objects is for their utility to the actor. In such communities primary concern is for such objects as one's job, money, and material wealth. Investments are made that will yield economic gains to the investor.

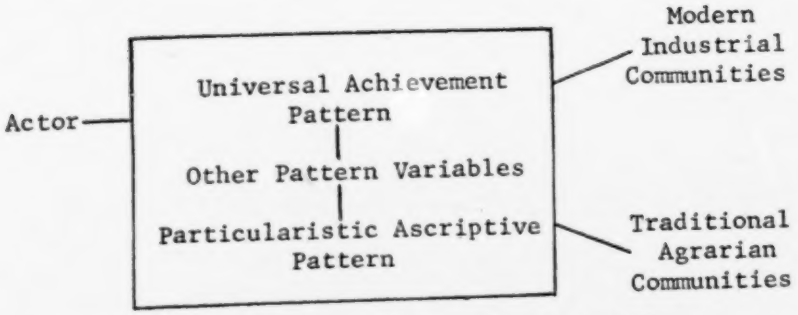

Figure 4. Pattern Variables and Communities

The particularistic-ascriptive pattern type describes more traditional communities. Social relationships in these communities are guided by particular positions that the relational object (usually another person) occupies. The persons ascribed identity takes precedence over what he may achieve through his own efforts. As such, social relationships are often maintained at the expense of individual achievements.

At the community level of analysis, the pattern variables define the end points of a continuum. The universal-achievement pattern is assumed to be more characteristic of urban communities which tend to emphasize objects of utility while the particularistic-ascriptive pattern is commonly thought of as portraying rural communities which place great emphasis on objects of identification (Figure 5).

At the same time social objects which are common to both rural and urban communities can be ranked on an identification-utility

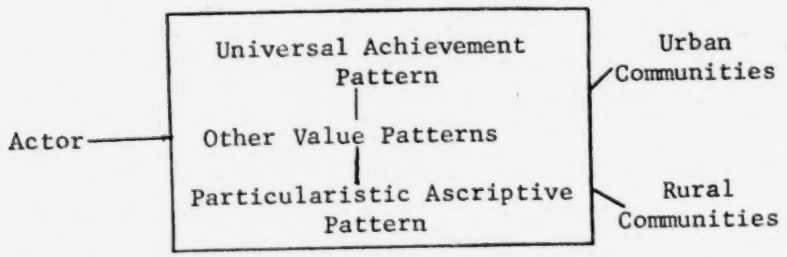

Figure 5. Pattern Variables and The Rural-Urban Continuum

continuum (Figure 6). While the empirical validity of such a ranking might be verified, the order used in this thesis is based on logic rather than empirical data. The association between the ordered social objects is assumed to be direct even though some of the objects are interdependent. This assumption, however, allows for a test using each social object independently of the others. The test will obviously be extremely conservative but quite useful. Finally, the diagram does not depict strictly a causal model as it deals with a dynamic system.

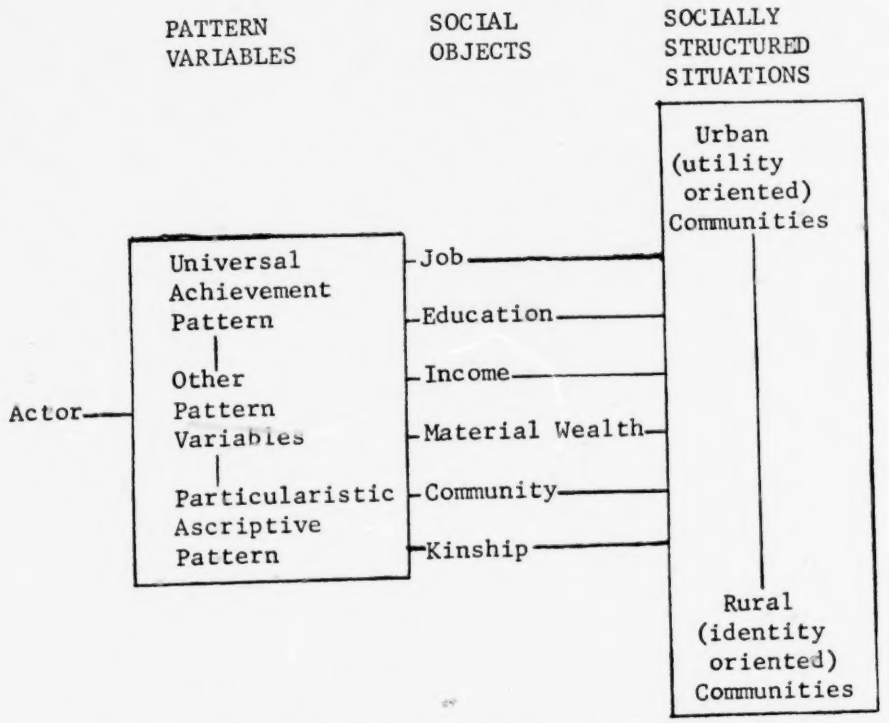

Figure 6. Social Objects and the Rural-Urban Continuum

Modality of Objects

The pattern variable scheme is used to differentiate four components of an action system: adaptation, integration, pattern maintenance, and goal attainment. Each pattern choice is used in delineating one of the component parts. The component primarily affected most by the particularistic-ascriptive and universal-achievement patterns is the goal attainment segment. Following our decision to concentrate on the above two pattern types, we will concentrate on the goal attainment segment. The other components

primarily deal with three of the other four pattern choices which are being excluded analytically from this research.

The goal attainment component of general action systems is called by Parsons (1967:200) the modality set. In it the meaning of social objects is viewed from the action system. It is in essence a four unit classificatory system. Objects which are primarily considered for their utility indicate a universal-performance pattern of values while those considered in terms of generalized respect generally define a universal-quality pattern of values. Objects of cathexis[3] lead to the particularistic-performance set, and finally objects considered primarily as a means of identification indicate a particularistic-quality orientation (Parsons, 1967:202). In reality the goal attainment paradigm forms a continuum with the universalistic-achievement and particularistic-ascriptive pattern types being the poles of the continuum. Using the poles as pure types a scheme can be developed for classifying actor-object relationship. Individuals who place greater emphasis on objects of identity will be classified as subscribing to particularistic ascriptive value patterns while those placing greater emphasis on objects of utility are assumed to be more universalistic-achievement oriented (Figure 6).

---

[3] Objects which meet special consumatory needs of the actor (Parsons, 1967:202).

Object emphasis can be seen from past, existing and from projected actor object relationships such as goals. The former observation depends partly on access to structures controlling some objects while the latter relies more heavily on the beliefs of the actor.

Aspirations

An individual's goals can best be viewed from his specific goals. An aspiration is defined as the desire for a specific goal; thus, one way of studying goals is through the actors aspirations. Each individual usually has a large number of aspirations and they are not always complimentary. A person might want both a large income and want little education at the same time. Though his desires do not coincide with one another he still wishes to have both.

Likewise, aspirations vary in degrees of intensity. A person might want a lot of money very much. With this strong desire he will make many sccrifices to reach his goal. He will also work much longer to reach his goal if the desire has a high intensity.

Hierachy of Social Objects

Just as the person develops a relationship with each social object, an hierarchy of objects is established by the individual. He can and either consciously or unconsciously does rank the objects

at any given moment in order of importance to him. This hierarch then is used to order desires in some fashion placing certain goals above others. In ordering the goals the hierarchy increases the intensity of goals regarding objects at the top and decreases it for those at the bottom.

Geographic Mobility

The process of relocating workers from an economically depressed area to one where jobs are available is, in essence, moving people from one type of situation to another. The meaning that the move will have for the person will depend on the value orientations of that person and the intensity of those value orientations (Figure 7).

The Sending Situation

The sending community is generally (and especially in the case under study) a rather traditionally oriented community. The primary concern of the area is agriculture production.[4] The major importance of social objects for the relocatee is for identification purposes. Income is lower in these areas, unemployment rates are higher, the average educational level is below par, but social relationships are intense. Most of the relocatee's extended family live in this area. Friendship ties in the sending community have been built over a long period of time.

---

[4]The major income of Mexican-Americans of the Lower Rio Grande Valley comes from agricultural production. (Grebler, 1970:55).

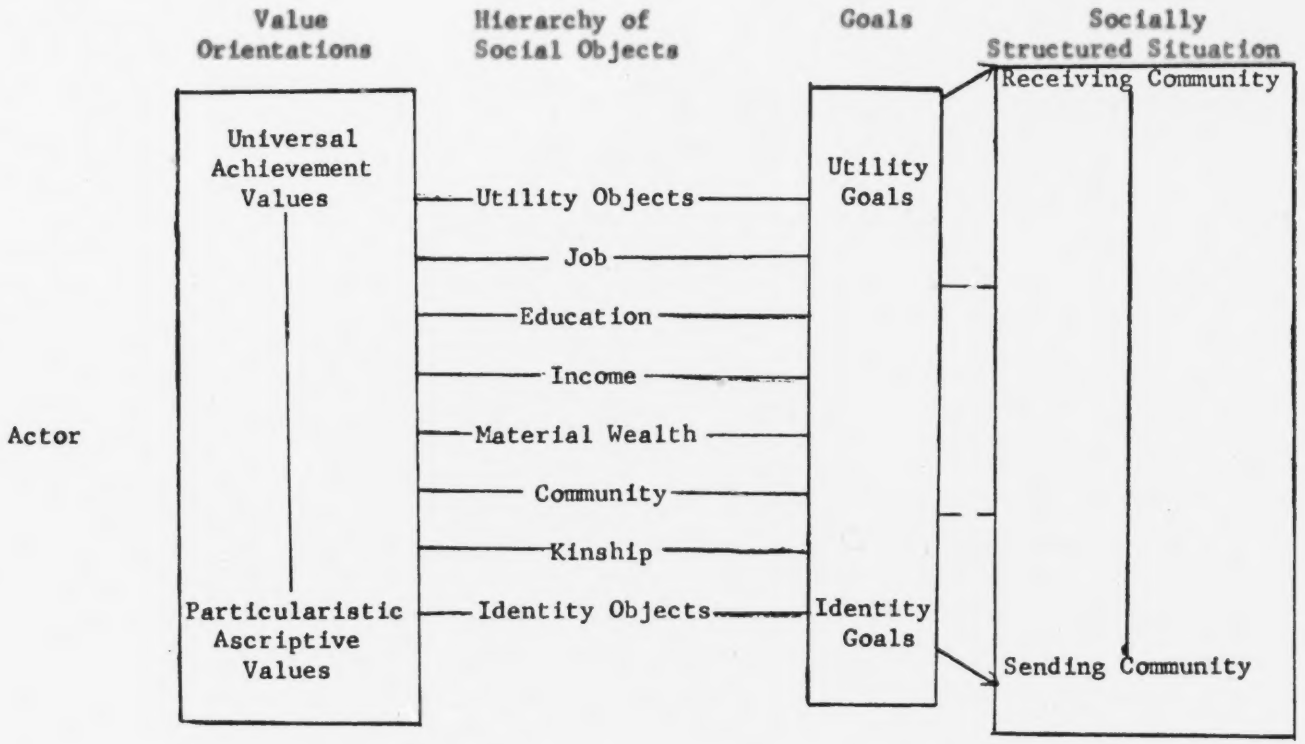

Figure 7. Value Orientations and Geographic Mobility

The Receiving Situation

The community into which the relocatees move into is, primarily, a modern industrial community. Within such a situation emphasis is placed on each person's ability to produce some good or service rather than who that person is. The person's job often takes primary importance over his family and friends. Advanced training and education are emphasized quite often as a means for improving one's social status.[5] The major means for evaluating an individual in the receiving community is the status position the person occupies.

Almost ninety percent of the relocatees in the particular program being studied were Mexican-Americans, yet the receiving community is predominately composed of Anglo-Americans (3.8 percent of the Dallas area families have Spanish surnames), according to the United States Census (1960a). This may be a very important factor since middle class Anglo-Americans are assumed to emphasize achievement orientations while Mexican-Americans appear to emphasize a more ascriptive approach. Parsons (1951:199), for instance, has noted that Spanish-Americans are exemplary of the particularistic-ascriptive type.

---

[5]An individual's social status is the major position or model social identity which that person occupies within a social situation during a given period of time (Dobriner, 1969).

Research Objectives

The purpose of labor mobility is to improve economic conditions through shifting manpower to areas where it is needed. Generally, it appears that this involves removing families from a social situation emphasizing particularistic-ascriptive value patterns to one emphasizing universalistic-achievement patterns. The process of adjusting from one situation to another seems to depend on the degree to which the relocatee's value orientations coincided with either of the two types. A person subscribing to the universalistic-achievement value orientation set should be more likely to be trained and relocated successfully than an individual following the particularistic-ascriptive value orientation pattern.

The proposition can be reduced to several testable hypotheses making certain assumptions implied above. We must assume that occupation, and education are utility oriented social objects. As such strong emphasis on these objects imply that the relocatee gives primacy to the universalistic-achievement orientation set. Conversely, assuming that social objects such as family, friends, and even the community where a person was reared are objects of identity, the relocatee who places greatest emphasis on such objects places importance on the particularistic-ascriptive pattern set.

Returning to the framework presented above, the relocatee who has strong desires for utility oriented goals would be better able to adjust to a utility oriented community than a person with weak

aspirations. Simarly, success in a training relocation program should be inversely related to the strength of social orientation. From these propositions it can be hypothesized that the relative importance that each person places on the social objects noted above (occupation, education, family, etc.) will affect the success that the person achieves in a labor mobility program, that is to say the person's success in such a program can be predicted from the way he ranks a group of social objects.

The above propositions can be explicated by four testable hypotheses which apply to the post-factum analysis that will follow.

1. Successful relocatees should maintain higher occupational goals than those who return to the sending community.
2. Successful relocatees should maintain stronger educational orientations than relocatees who return to their original community of residence.
3. Relocatees who return to the sending community should have stronger social ties to that community than do the stayers.
4. Stayers should rank objects of utility higher than returnees while returnees should place more value on objects of identity.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Cultural Orientations in America

The range of values in our society is so great that precise and detailed characterizations can be made only for carefully delimited segments of the society (Williams, 1970). Lacking a middle range theory for the development of hypotheses much of the research on value orientations has depended primarily on systematized insight and previous findings (Schwarzweller, 1960), but dominant value configurations have been outlined (Williams, 1970).

Americans have a strong self-orientation, according to Morris (1956). Indeed, the average middle class Anglo-American expresses an association of dominant orientations of individualism, future time orientations, man's capability to master over nature, and doing rather than being (Kluckholn and Strodbeck, 1961). These values mesh together in the central stress on personal achievement which appears primarily through emphasis on competitive occupational achievement (Williams, 1970).

Variations in Values

Variability does, however, exist within the American culture. Current rural values are believed to be a combination of traditional rural values and contemporary industrial values (Beal and Warland, 1966). "Obviously, the difference in day-to-day demands of urban

existence and rural existence have resulted in differences in the customs and habits of rural and urban communities," (Fuller, 1970: 71). Rural people are purported to be more oriented toward self sufficiency rather than economic dependence and economic security instead of emotional security; furthermore, rural miners value an automobile as a mode of transportation instead as an object of prestige (Gladden and Christiansen, 1956).

The variability of values among different social classes is quite controversial. Rosen (1956) suggests that middle class groups place a higher value on achievement than do other classes. Some sociologists maintain, however, that the dominant value patterns persist through all social classes (Rodman, 1963). Thus, we must conclude that while there exists an ideal class patterning of values this patterning does not hold for all components of the American Society. The ideal middle class individual is self-oriented, achievement-oriented, future-oriented, and places great emphasis on man's ability to conquer nature.

Difference in the values of individual racial and ethnic groups is also evident. Rosen (1959) found achievement motivation to be more characteristic of Greeks, Jews and white Protestants than of Italians, French-Canadians, or Negroes. He also found that Jews, Greeks, and Protestants, along with Negroes, held higher educational aspirations than the other groups. Negroes, however, held lower vocational aspirations than the achievement oriented groups.

Many writers have indicated that Mexican-Americans could never move up the social mobility ladder because of their traditional orientation (Grebler, 1970).

"Mexican-American values can be said to be directed toward tradition, fatalism, resignation, strong family ties, a high regard for authority, paternalism, personal relations, reluctance to change, a greater orientation to the present time than to the future and a greater concern for being rather than doing," (Grebler, 1970).

This statement echoes findings of earlier studies by Madsen (1964) and Heller (1966). However, these apparent values of Mexican-Americans seem to be more of a response to environmental pressures rather than values. The extended family living arrangement appears to Grebler (1970) to be more of an ad hoc solution to temporary economic problems than a valued goal. The shedding of lower class traits, not the relinquishing of Mexican values, is most directly related to upward mobility (Stoddard, 1970). Furthermore, Burma (1970) notes that Spanish-Americans, Mexican-Americans, and Mexican-Nationals all showed a strong dissatisfaction and bitterness toward their inability to earn a living. Mexican-Americans according to Grebler (1970) are beginning to recognize their own abilities but must be given avenues for achieving economic success.

Values and Migration

The need to know more about the relationship of values to

migration is emphasized by Shannon and Krass (1964) but little empirical research exists on this topic. Values of achievement, science, and mutual comfort were found to be at least partially related to adoption of new practices while values of security and traditionalism were inversely related to adoption. Efficiency and practicality, external comfort, progress, familism, farming as a way of life, hard work, and individualism were all found not to be related to adoption of practices (Ramsey et. al., 1959). Similarly, successful members of one industrial training project were more likely to see themselves as being in control of events which might affect them (Miller and Zeller, 1967).

Values provide a definition of goals which focuses the attention on achievement and prepares the upwardly mobile person to translate motive into action according to Rosen (1956). The concept of anticipatory socialization as used by Ellis and Lane (1963) suggests that successfully mobile individuals adopt the attitudes, values, and judgments of the group they aspire to before actually joining the group. Indeed, Fuller (1970) indicates that many farm residents fear transition to non-farm life because they reject the values and modes of living they associate with non-farm residence. Navahoes whose values are compatible with opportunities existing in urban areas tend to remain in the city longer than other Navahoes (Graves and Van Arsdale, 1966).

Occupational Orientations

Most of the research on the relation of specific orientations has been done on the connection between status projections and the desire to migrate among high school students. Levels of occupational achievement have, however, been associated with levels of occupational and educational aspirations (Haller, 1959).

Occupational aspirations and value orientations of seniors in eight Kentucky rural high schools were analyzed by Schwarzweller (1959). Status of occupational aspirations was found to have significant positive relationship to values for mental work and service to society. Hard work and security were both negatively correlated with occupational aspiration level. The same relationships were found between the values noted and plans to enter a high status job. Boys, however, were found to place greater value on achievement, creative work, security, and material comfort more than girls. A later analysis of the same data on boys only reported in Schwarzweller (1960) reveals a slightly different picture. Boys' levels of occupational aspirations were positively related to values for creative work, work with people and service to society, while they were negatively associated with material comfort and hard work. High value for achievement occurs more among urban boys than rural ones.

Analysis of occupational aspirations of Mexican-American South Texas high school students by Wright (1968) revealed that most of the students interviewed (58 percent) desired professional level

occupations while only thirteen percent of the group desired skilled level occupations. Only sixteen percent of the dropouts polled in the same study according to Kuvlesky and Wages (1970) desired professional jobs while forty-four percent of that group desired skilled jobs. Significant differences occurred only in the two categories mentioned suggesting a shift from professional to vocational values with termination from high school.

The level of occupational aspiration of 9,986 Wisconsin high school senior boys was found to increase as community size increases (Sewell and Orenstein, 1965). Furthermore, urban boys of Florida were more likely than rural boys to have high occupational aspirations (Middleton and Grigg, 1959). Desire to migrate was not, however, found to be related to occupational desire according to Schulze, Artes, and Beegle (1963), and Haller and Sewell (1957) found no difference in farm and non-farm youth's occupational aspirations. Indeed, like factors were found to influence subsequent socio-economic status achievement for persons reared in either a rural or urban place (Windham, 1964).

In a study of assembly line workers, Guest (1954) found that such workers neither desire nor expect jobs that will give them a higher economic and social status within that organization. This group maintained long range mobility but looked to immediate advantage of job security and a reasonably steady income. Likewise, in a study of 1074 rural male adults (Taylor and Glasgow, 1963)

found that in all instances but clerical and sales a majority gave their present job as the one they liked best.

Racine Mexican-American migrants who hold higher level jobs were found by Choldin and Trout (1969) to have greater stability than other Mexican-American migrants, but most Mexican-American migrants hold significantly lower level jobs than most Anglo-Americans (Shannon and Lettau, 1963). In California, however, these people are raising their occupational levels as evidenced by the fact that twenty-two percent of California Mexican-Americans now hold white collar jobs and that more than forty-six percent of this group hold blue collar jobs (Penalosa, 1967).

Educational Orientations

The association between value orientations and educational aspirations has also been studied by Schwarzweller (1959) who found college level aspirations to be positively related to a value for service to society while college aspirations were found to be negatively related to a value for hard work. While plans to attend college were related to service and work values, they were also positively related to a value for mental work and negatively associated with security values. Schwarzweller failed to find any relations between college aspirations and achievement values. In fact, there was almost a significant negative relationship between plans to attend college and achievement values though a positive

relationship was hypothesized. In an analysis of achievement motive in 715 men Crockett (1962) found, however, that the strength of the achievement motive was clearly related to upward mobility among sons of fathers in lower prestige categories. He concluded that the achievement motive may offset low educational attainment.

An analysis of net migration for twelve standard metropolitan areas revealed that migration by education was selective of extremes. In-migrants tended to either have twelve or more years of school or four or fewer years of formal schooling (Blevins, 1969). Similarly, Bock and Iutaka (1969) found level of education to be the best predictor of social mobility among rural-urban migrants in South America. In their study of Mexican-American immigrants to Racine, Shannon and Morgan (1966) found adjustments to urban life to be related to a grouped set of factors including education of the male member of the family. Community stability was not, however, found to be inversely related to educational level by Choldin and Trout (1969). Furthermore, community satisfaction was not found to be inversely related to educational aspirations by Schulze, Artis, and Beegle (1963), but Haller and Sewell (1967) found that boys planning to migrate seek more education than those who plan to remain in their home community.

A study of educational aspirations of Mexican-American boys of South Texas revealed that most students (53 percent) from that area desired to complete college (Juarez, 1968). High school drop-outs interviewed in the same study indicated much lower aspirations

according to Wages, Thomas and Kuvlesky (1969). Only eighteen percent of the latter group desired to complete college. Likewise, eighty percent of boys in school indicated a desire to achieve beyond a high school education, but only thirty one percent of the male dropouts interviewed desired beyond a high school education.

Social Relationships

The association between value orientations and social relations appears to be assumed so much that it has not been well researched. Johnson and Kerckhoff (1964) in a study of 199 men with one or more children over twenty-five or who were married found that those who exhibited nuclear family norms were more likely to be open to change and were less likely to see conflict between family values and economic success values. When the needs of the family supercede the needs of the individual a number of consequences detrimental to individual achievement may occur according to Grebler (1970). In such cases the family takes over all social relations making the individual less capable of acquiring new values.

Sussman and Burchinal (1962a), however, maintain that rather than binding individual needs as an extended family or allowing free movement as a nuclear family that a third type evolves. They suggest that certain extended family components act as supports for the mobile individual. This type of structure does not require geographic propinquity, neolocal residence, occupational nepotism or a rigid authority structure (Sussman and Burchinal, 1962b).

In this vain, an analysis of family attachment and migration plans of 790 New York high school seniors revealed that students who show high family attachment and have support for migration and those with low attachment for their family than high family attachment students who do not have support for migration. Shift in residence is, however, likely to weaken the supports that the extended family gives to the nuclear unit (Brown, 1968), unless he has some relative in the receiving community.

When the family is used as a facilitating agent for migration it acts as a stem supplying the needed energy to keep the migrant in his new home, yet at the same time receiving cultural advantages that are available in the city (Brown, Schwarzweller, and Mangalam, 1963). Many significant social changes in the Kentucky mountains were attributed to the stem family exchange by Schwarzweller (1968).

Once in the receiving community the migrants tend to form tight clusters of friends and relatives from the sending community (Killian, 1963). While this acts as a buffer easing the transition from one social structure to another, it also delays assimilation into the new community (Brown, 1968). Contrary to this idea though, Burchinal and Bauder (1965) found little difference in neighboring among migrants and non-migrants.

Summary

The research reviewed reveals both support and opposition to the framework being used. It seems apparent that achievement especially occupational achievement is a dominant middle class orientation in America, if not a value for the entire culture. Achievement seems more characteristic of white protestant urban citizens while rural Catholic poverty stricken people place more emphasis on security. Traditionally, however, Mexican-Americans have tended to be more traditional oriented. These data suggest that there might be considerable difference between the value structures of the community of origin and the receiving community.

Occupational aspirations have not been found to be significantly related to a value of achievement among high school students in Kentucky, but significant difference did exist between the occupational aspirations of high school Mexican-Americans in South Texas and high school dropouts of the same area. Occupational aspirations, however, have not been found to be related to desire to migrate.

Education, on the otherhand, has been found to be the best predictor of rural urban migration with migrants fitting best in extreme categories. College aspirations were not found to be related with high levels of educational desires, but South Texas Mexican-American students did have considerably higher educational desires than did dropouts. Achievement values and educational

aspirations may complement each other, thus low educational achievement is offset by achievement motive.

Men who espouse nuclear family norms were found to be more open to change and less likely to see conflict between family values and economic success values. But family support favoring mobility may be a major offsetting factor. High school students who exhibited high family attachment with support, as well as those who had low family attachment, were more likely to have migration plans than students with high family attachments but no support for migration.

In conclusion, the variation within and among the populations on which research has been done may account for the few significant findings made. Not only are the findings often contradictory but almost every study uses a different framework for analysis (actually most use no framework at all). Furthermore, much of the analysis is based on atypical (student) populations. One overriding conclusion permeates throughout the literature reviewed, however: the relation between an individual or family and a community is defined by the value that the individual or family place on the real or perceived components of the community. Furthermore, each individual or family will optimize their value orientations in selecting a community in which to live.

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

Source of Data

The data for this thesis were taken from a larger research project entitled Occupational and Personal Adjustments of Retrained Relocated Workers and Their Families which was sponsored by the Texas Agricultural Experiment Station and the Cooperative State Research Service (Project G1716). The project was directed by Dr. David C. Ruesink of the Department of Agricultural Economics and Rural Sociology at Texas A&M University using all those who relocated during December, 1967, January, 1968, and May, 1968 (180 of the 684 relocated under the program discussed earlier) as a sample base. The May cohort of 46 relocatees was used as a primary follow-up sample being interviewed one month after relocation and every six months thereafter for two years or unless they left their job at LTV prior to June 1, 1970. In addition, the 44 relocatees from the sample base who were located in the sending community sometime between May, 1968 and September, 1969 were interviewed in South Texas to form the returnee cohort. The May cohort and the returnee cohort form the sample used in this analysis.

The addresses of the May cohort were supplied by LTV from personnel files. Each relocatee was visited in his home at a time that was convenient to the relocatee and his family and was asked to participate in the study. An interview was conducted based on

an extensive but mostly open ended questionnaire. Though they were not required to be present, the respondent's family often participated in the interview. In fact, the informal conversation with the relocatee and his family often provided more unquantified insight to the relocation process than that obtained from the formal interview. Over the two-year period this researcher established rapport with the respondents and their families.

Interviews with returnees were conducted in South Texas under similar circumstances as described above. The returnee was located through secondary sources given to TEC by the relocatee during screening interviews and was interviewed in his home. A questionnaire similar to the firstone used for the May cohort was used to guide the interview. Rapport with returnees was more variable than with the May cohort; however, most respondents answered questions quite freely and were most helpful to the interviewers.

Interviews were conducted, for the most part, by professional sociologists of the Department of Agricultural Economics and Sociology of Texas A&M University. Most of the interviewing of the May cohort was conducted by the author in his capacity as a research assistant. All background information for the sample was obtained from TEC screening interviews (for analysis of background information see Appendix A).

Dependent Variable

Failure or success in the particular program under consideration appears in two forms: the training of workers to do a particular job and the moving of that worker to a new community. Success in this analysis will be defined in terms of a continuum: at one end point is that individual type that fits into his new job and community very well and remains there at least for the length of the study (two years); at the other end is the individual who obviously did not fit into either the job or the community. This is characteristic of the person who leaves the job and returns to his old home community. There are at least two other categories which fall somewhere on the continuum between the end points described: there is the individual who likes the job but who does not fit into the community and the individual who doesn't care for the type job he has but likes living in the new community. While all these types need to be considered in evaluating the program, the primary concern in this analysis is with distinguishing between the two end points. The major dependent variable, then, will be the relocatees status two years after termination. This variable will be divided into three levels: stayers - those relocatees who were still working at LTV as of June 1, 1970; returnees - those relocatees who terminated from the program before

June 1, 1970 and who were located in South Texas and interviewed there after termination; and terminals - those relocatees who were still in the program when the data were collected but who quit their job at LTV before June, 1970. Information about the latter set's behavior after termination is not available, and it, therefore, is only vaguely associated with the framework. The terminal category will be used primarily in cases where a particular item is not available for the returnee class.

Independent Variables

The four hypotheses presented in the framework section can be related to several variables available from the research of the LTV program. Again, it must be remembered that the questions being used were not devised to be used in the framework I have set forth but were selected as those available which best fit the framework.

Occupational Orientations

As stated in the first hypothesis, a person maintaining high occupational aspirations should relocate more successfully than a person maintaining low aspirations. Three indicators of job desires are available in the data at hand. First, respondents were asked in screening interviews what their last job was and what job they were seeking, and later in follow-up interviews they were asked what job they would most like to have.

The data were coded from open ended questions into codes set up by the research staff. To facilitate analysis they were recorded into the scheme used by Kuvlesky and Upham (1967). This forced most of the responses into the moderate category (see Appendix B), however, so an alternative was selected. The scheme used by Wright (1968) fit the data quite well except for the upper level occupations. This scheme is frequently accepted and is being used widely in analysis of occupational aspirations. The categories are as follows:

1. Professional
2. Owner, Manager, Official
3. Clerical and Sales
4. Skilled
5. Operatives
6. Unskilled
7. Other

The major change made in the scale is that the categories of "high professional", "low professional", and "glamour" were all grouped together under the "professional" classification because very few respondents fell into those categories. While there are arguments in opposition to this type of prestige ranking, Thomas (1970) has shown that this type ranking coincides quite well with other measures of socio-economic status such as income and education.

Educational Orientations

While educational attainment and special training will be used as indicators of a strong utility orientation, they both are dependent on structures for making such attainments possible. Educational aspirations, on the other hand, are primarily dependent on the individual's desires. Each individual was asked how much education he would like to have and responses were recorded according to the level he specified. Relocatees who indicated higher educational orientations are expected to relocate more successfully than respondents who held lower educational desires. Educational aspirations for adults logically would seem very vague due to lack of information about opportunity structures. For this reason we will include responses on plans for taking adult night school courses through LTV (because all relocatees were told of this structure when they began work there) or any other adult school program. According to the framework outlined earlier, individuals who plan to increase their educational status place greater emphasis on objects of utility than objects of identification and will, therefore, tend to succeed in the relocation program more often than those who have no plans for further education.

Social Orientations

The most difficult of the independent variables to assess are the social relationships that the relocatee maintains with relatives, friends, and the sending community. The primary indicator of social-orientations prior to relocation available was previous living arrangements. The individual who lives with relatives other than his immediate family would appear to have a strong social orientation. Thus we would expect the relocatees who had lived separate from their extended family to have a weaker orientation toward that groups and would be better able to leave the sending community than those with strong social orientations. Living with relatives may, however, be a response to economic forces as suggested by Burma (1970) rather than a voluntary response. To avoid such a situation we will look at visiting patterns of relocatees during the first six months after relocation. Individuals with strongest social ties will maintain those ties through contact with friends and relatives in the sending community. Maintenance of social relationship can be reached through three means: visiting, telephone, and letters. Several sacrifices must be made for the relocatee to go from Grand Prairie to South Texas, thus, pattern of visitation to the sending community during the first six months after relocation appears to be the best available measure of the

relocatee's social orientations. Both telephone calls and letters can be maintained without the relocatee subjecting himself to the strong social forces of the sending community.

Both living arrangements prior to relocation and visitation patterns are dependent on certain opportunity structures which would permit the relocatee to respond in the way he would prefer. The only measure available which indicates the relocatees orientation toward the sending community without requiring some opportunity structure is one dealing with the relocatees residential preference. In the follow-up interviews each respondent was asked to select between the sending and receiving communities under different ideal conditions using hourly income differences to determine the respondents level of social orientation. Each respondent was asked if he were offered the same job in both Grand Prairie and South Texas where he would prefer to live: if the hourly pay was the same in both places; if he would get 25¢ per hour less in South Texas than in Grand Prairie; if he would get 50¢ per hour less in South Texas than in Grand Prairie; and if he were paid 75¢ per hour less in South Texas than in Grand Prairie.

The strength of each relocatees desire to maximize his social relationships in the sending community is indicated by the amount of reduction in hourly pay that the respondent would sacrifice to live in the sending community. The greater reduction

in hourly wage that a respondent will accept indicates a stronger orientation toward the sending community. Thus, the respondent who prefers to live in Grand Prairie for the least difference in hourly wage will be most likely to succeed in a training relocation program.

Hierarchy of Social Objects

As noted in the last hypothesis set forth in the framework for analysis, individuals who place objects of utility above objects of identity should be more successful in a training relocation program. Unfortunately, the relocatees ranking of social objects was not obtained before relocation. We did, however, obtain such a ranking in the eighteen interviews. Thus, we can perform a weak test of our hypothesis. Respondents ranked seven social objects in order of importance to them. Three of these items directly relate to items presented above occupation, education and family. A cumulative score can be found by considering the top three items ranked by each individual. Giving the first or top rank a score of three, the second a score of two, and the third a score of one for each of the three items appearing in any of the three spots results in a cumulative score. Since two of the items - occupation and education - are considered objects of utility and the third, family, an object of identification, the last will always have a negative sign. Thus, we have developed a ordinal scale of orientation with a high score indicating a strong social orientation leading to the hypothesis that a person with a high score on this scale will be better able

to adjust than an individual with a low orientation score.

Statistical Test

The use of statistical tests gives a more accurate base for making decisions about hypothesized relationships. They are especially useful in comparing categories from similar questions. Nonparametric tests are especially efficient for analysis based on small samples. Since most of the data used in this thesis are based on very small samples and consequently are difficult to compare, the use of a nonparametric goodness of fit test leads to a more objective analysis.

The best test for the type of data being analyzed is the Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) goodness of fit test. The test statistic is the maximum difference between simultaneous points of two cumulative frequency distributions. The K-S test is a rather powerful test yet does not require the assumptions that parametric tests require. The relative efficiency of the K-S test compared to the students t test is about 96 percent under assumptions of the t test (Siegel, 1956), and it uses more information with fewer restrictions than the chi-square test (Chamption, 1970). The major disadvantage of using the K-S test is that exact probabilities for each D (largest proportional difference between two cumulative frequency distributions) have been computed only for small, equal samples. Fortunately, the chi-square distribution can be approximated by the

following formula:

$$X^2 = (4\ D^2)\ \left[\frac{N_1\ N_2}{N_1 + N_2}\right]$$

where $D = /S_{N1}\ (X) - S_{N2}\ (X)/$ for two tailed tests and df = 2 for all two sample problems (Siegel, 1956). The utility of using the chi-square approximation for small samples is demonstrated well by Siegel (1956:133).

In this thesis all hypothesis will be set up as null hypotheses and tested in a two tailed situation. The X^2 approximation of the K-S statistic will be used with a .05 level of significance. Thus, the critical X^2 value will be 5.991 (Champion, 1970) for all binomial variables. Any calculated X^2 exceeding this value will indicate significant differences in the two distributions being tested.

Sample

The data used in this thesis are based on interviews with the May relocatee cohort and with the returnee cohort. This rather small sample of May relocatees (46) was used rather than the entire sample because we have information from this group immediately after relocation and because we have more extensive information about this group due to the follow-up interviews. Furthermore, because the authors involvement in the collection of the follow-up data, a source of qualitative information is available if needed.

In the analysis eight questions will be used (see Appendix C for exact questions). Of these eight, two were taken from screening interviews conducted by the Texas Employment Commission; four were taken from the interviews conducted one month after relocation, and one each from the six and eighteen month follow-up interviews. Only six of the eight questions were asked of the returnee group, so for the other two questions a comparison will be made between the stayers and the portion of the May cohort that terminated from the program.

Limitations of Data

A number of factors beyond the control of the author severely limits any conclusions made in this analysis. First, the data being analyzed were not collected for testing the framework being used. Some of the epistomological connection will, therefore, be quite strained. Second, the population sampled is not typical of the geographic area they represent (see Appendix A). Any findings thus apply only to the population of relocated workers in the project involved and not to the residents of South Texas. Finally, inadequate knowledge about the ultimate behavior of terminals and returnees severaly restricts any conclusions. Either of these cohorts might have been well adjusted to the receiving situation yet have been drawn out of that situation by positive rather than negative orientations. We assume that in leaving the receiving community there is a negative orientation toward it.

ANALYSIS

In this section analysis of differences in the four orientation elements (occupational, educational, social, and hierarchial) for the three dependent variable classes. While discussion will center around items presented under 'independent variables' in the previous section, several related items will also be considered. The analysis will concentrate on differences between the stayer and returnee classes but differences between the stayer and terminal classes will also receive considerable attention. Since the major point of reference used throughout this thesis will be the orientation of those relocatees who remained in the program for the first two years, the comparisons will be made between that set and each of the other two.

Occupational Orientations

Last Regular Job

One of the benchmarks of any adult's status orientation is the level of previous success that he has experienced. Occupational orientations, therefore, should depend to some extent on the jobs that the worker had before relocating. Assuming that progress occurs continuously[6], then, the last regular job that the worker

[6]This assumption may be erroneous but is necessary in this analysis since a complete work history for each respondent is not readily available.

had should give a basis for testing the workers base level of orientation.

Differences in the cumulative distribution of stayers and returners, and stayers and terminals were not significant (see Table 1); however, certain relationships are apparent. Three of the previous job categories have linear or inverse linear relationships to the three item dependent variable. The highest occupational category held greater percentages of returnees and terminals than stayers. Likewise, inverse relationships exist between the relocatees status and the service[7], and structural categories with greater percentages of stayers working in the structural construction or service type jobs.

The greatest difference between the stayer and returnee sets, however, occurred in the lowest category of miscellaneous jobs which consists primarily of unskilled and entry level workers. A much larger percentage of the returnees fall into this category than either the stayers or the terminals, but the terminal class had a slightly lower percentage of that class fall into the miscellaneous category than the stayer class. In summary, it appears that successful relocation is at least partly a function of the relocaters past work experience but not directly related to the

[7] The service category contains primarily public service jobs such as policeman or soldier rather than domestic service positions.

Table 1. Relocatee Status Two Years After Relocation by Last Regular Job

Last Regular Employment (DOT)	Stayer (N=32)	Terminal (N=14)	Retrainee (N=43)
Professional, Technician, Managerial	6.3 %	7.2 %	11.6 %
Clerical and Sales	18.8	21.4	11.6
Service	21.9	21.4	14.0
Machines Trade	3.1	0.0	6.9
Bench Work	3.1	0.0	0.0
Structural	12.5	7.2	4.7
Agriculture	6.2	21.4	11.6
Processing	3.1	0.0	6.9
Miscellaneous	25.0	21.4	37.2
Total	100.0	100	99.9
Unusable	0	0	1

$D_{S-R} = .054\ X^2 = .22$ NS

$D_{S-T} = .182\ X^2 = 1.29$ NS

hierarchy of job status that was hypothesized.

Job Sought

The second indicator available that amplifies differences in the occupational orientations of stayers and returnees is the job the relocater was seeking when he was first screened for the LTV program. Though the categories for this variable do not correspond to those used for the last job, the results appear to be very comparable.

Fewer stayers than terminals or the returnees sought jobs in the highest occupational category (see Table 2). The differences are not increasing, however, from stayer to terminal to returnee as the terminal group had the largest percentage seeking upper level jobs. In fact, the same pattern holds for the lowest ranked category of miscellaneous jobs, and the pattern is reversed for the assembly and operative categories. Stayer percentages for both these classifications were quite high (combined they account for over thirty percent of the stayers), while the proportion of returnees was less (only twenty-one percent) and the part of terminals in these categories was even less (eight percent) than the other two classes.

In general, the terminals differ from the stayers more than the returnees. This is supported by the higher D value for the stayer-returnee matching though neither of the values reached

Table 2. Relocatee Status Two Years After Relocation by Job Sought Before Entering the LTV Program

Job Sought	Stayer (N=31)	Terminal (N=13)	Returnee (N=44)
Managerial, Sales, Clerical	22.6 %	38.5 %	29.4 %
Mechanical	19.4	23.1	17.6
Assembly	9.7	0	5.9
Construction	19.4	7.7	23.5
Roughnecking	3.2	0	2.9
Operative	22.6	7.7	14.7
Agriculture	0	7.7	0
Other	3.2	15.4	5.9
Total	99.9	100.2	99.9
Unusable	1	1	0

$D_{S-R} = .068$ $X^2 = .30$ NS

$D_{S-T} = .199$ $X^2 = 1.45$ NS

significance. Two major categories do not fit the pattern, however. More terminals sought mechanical jobs than did either of the other two classes, but more of the stayers than returnees desired such a job. Likewise, a greater percentage of the returnee set than of the stayer or terminals sought construction jobs but more of the stayers than terminals fell into that category.

In summary, the data in Table 2 partially support the hypothesis that more of the returning class would seek lower level jobs. In fact, the opposite occurred, but as before there seems to be some relation between the type of job that the relocatee seeks and the success that he finds in any job.

Occupational Aspirations

While both previous job and job sought are related to success in the relocation process their failure to be significantly related to that process might be based on some intervening situation. Therefore, the key variable to evaluate the occupational orientations of the relocated workers will be occupational aspirations. Given a free choice to choose any occupation they desired the respondents should base their orientation primarily on their value orientations rather than other intervening factors.

Analysis of the data, however, reveal a similar pattern to the patterns of the two variables previously discussed (see Table 3). As before, fewer stayers than returnees desired professional

Table 3. Relocatee Status Two Years After Relocation by Occupational Aspirations One Month After Relocation

Occupational Aspiration	Stayer (N=23)	Terminal (N=12)	Returnee (N=40)
Professional	4.3 %	0 %	17.5 %
Owner, Manager, or Official	0	8.3	0.0
Clerical or Sales	26.1	16.7	17.5
Skilled	65.2	75.0	57.5
Operative	4.3	0	7.5
Unskilled	0	0	0
Total	99.9	100	100
Unusable	(9)	(2)	(4)

$D_{S-R} = .135\ X^2 = 1.01$ NS

$D_{S-T} = .054\ X^2 = .09$ NS

level jobs. In fact, if the two highest status categories were combined the distribution of percentages of respondents desiring that level job would form an increasing function from stayer to terminal to returnee. Likewise, a larger proportion of stayers than returnees desired skilled level jobs, but more terminals than either of the other two categories desired skilled jobs. In spite of the fact that some of the sample were no longer in the program, more of all three categories desired skilled level jobs than any other level.

While a pattern emerges throughout all three occupational orientation variables one must question the validity of the major variable because of the fifteen unusable responses. The nature of the stimulus used to elicit the aspiration probably accounts for some of the non-response as an open ended question was used, but that should produce uniform non-response rather than the heavy distribution among the stayer category. The non-response may be an indicator of an open orientation based on opportunity rather than a set goal framework.

Summarizing findings throughout the analysis of respondents occupational orientations reveals several patterns. Generally, returnees place more emphasis on highest level jobs while stayers concentrate more on skilled level jobs. Returnees, however, tend to place greater emphasis on lowest level occupations than do stayers. For occupational orientations the hypothesis that returnees

will have lower level occupational orientations than stayers is, at best, only partially correct and possibly completely inappropriate.

Educational Orientations

The second thrust of this analysis will center around educational orientations of the three relocatee classes. According to the conceptual scheme stayers should have higher educational orientations than those who return to the sending community. We will also present data on the orientations of terminals as a possible link between the stayers and returnees.

Educational Attainment

As pointed out earlier, the relocators orientations depend greatly on the base he has achieved. Assuming that America has an open opportunity structure (which we know is not the case), we can use previous educational attainment as an indicator of the respondents orientation toward education. Thus, by viewing the number of years of formal education the respondent has attained and whether or not he has received any special training we obtain an estimate of the value that the respondent places on education as a mean for achievement in the social situation which he lives.

The largest segment of all three sets being studied completed at least twelve grades of public school (see Table 4). The stayer class, however, showed a tendency to have terminated their formal schooling

Table 4. Relocatee Status Two Years After Relocation by Last Grade of School Completed

Last Grade Completed	Stayer (N=31)	Terminal (N=14)	Returnee (N=43)
Two years of college	3.2 %	7.1 %	0 %
One year of college	0	14.3	4.6
12	48.4	28.6	32.6
11	3.2	7.1	9.3
10	12.9	71	4.6
9	19.4	14.3	14.0
8	6.5	21.4	18.6
7	3.2	0	9.3
6 or less	3.2	0	7.0
Total	100.0	99.9	100.0
Unusable	1	0	1

$D_{S-R} = .220$ $X^2 = 3.49$ NS

$D_{S-T} = .183$ $X^2 = 1.29$ NS

at a higher level than did the returnees or terminals though in comparing the cumulative distributions neither of the two D values reached significance. On the other hand, a smaller portion of the stayers than either returnees or terminals had received any form of special training prior to entering the program (see Table 5). Again, however, differences between the stayer and other distributions were not significant.

Educational Plans and Aspirations

Both of the education variables discussed to this point rely on the existence of opportunities which are not directly under the individuals control. Thus, some of the less well trained relocaters may not have achieved an adequate level of education because they were not given sufficient opportunity. One's plans for continuing special education, however, should not rely on such mechanisms. Furthermore, all relocaters should be aware of opportunity structures as respondents confirmed that they were offered special training while in the program.

As expected, the stayers when compared with returnees had plans for increasing their educational level significantly more often (see Table 6). Differences between educational plans of stayers and terminals were also found to be significantly different. A much larger portion of the terminals were indecisive about their plans.

Table 5. Relocatee Status Two Years After Relocation by Previous Special Training

Previous Special Training	Stayer (N=32)	Terminal (N=14)	Returnee (N=44)
Yes	18.8 %	35.7 %	29.3 %
No	81.2	64.3	70.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Unusable	0	0	0

$D_{S-R} = .106 \quad X^2 = .79 \quad NS$

$D_{S-\bar{T}} = .169 \quad X^2 = 1.11 \quad NS$

Table 6. Relocatee Status Two Years After Relocation by Plans for Further Education

Further Education Planned	Stayers (N=32)	Terminals (N=14)	Returnees (N=44)
Yes	75.0%	35.7%	36.4%
Uncertain	15.6	42.9	29.5
No	9.4	21.4	34.1
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0
Unusable	0	0	0

$D_{S-R} = .386 \quad X^2 = 11.04 \quad P \ .05$

$D_{S-T} = .393 \quad X^2 = 6.02 \quad P \ .05$

A note of caution should be interjected here, however, as a possible intervening variable may be affecting the results. The responses for the returnee class, as pointed out earlier, were taken from interviews with these relocatees after they had returned to the sending community. The specific incident that prompted their termination may have affected the respondents educational plans. Furthermore, the only perceived opportunity available for some relocatees to get more education may have been through LTV. If this was the case, the returnees should have no further plans, but differences between stayers and terminals suggest that the differences are valid orientation differences.

The ideal measure of the relocatees educational orientations would be a measure of educational aspirations. An individuals aspirations are supposed to be free from opportunity bias (in reality even this is probably affected by chances to succeed). Unfortunately, the returnees were not asked about their educational aspirations, but the other two sets were quizzed as to how much education they would like to have if they were free to choose. Since the plans for further training among terminals and returnees are quite similar we will assume that if stayers and terminals differ significantly then stayers and returnees would also differ significantly.

A majority of the stayer class desired at least some college while the terminal set fell below that mark (see Table 7). In fact, the differences between the distributions indicated that the terminal

Table 7. Relocatee Status Two Years After Relocation by Level of Educational Aspirations

Level of Aspiration	Stayer (N=23)	Terminal (N=13)
As much as possible	43.5 %	15.4 %
Some College	34.8	15.4
Trade School	0	7.7
High School	13.0	30.7
As much as necessary	0	7.7
No more	8.7	23.1
TOTAL	100.0	100.0
Unusable	9	1

$D_{S-T} = .475 \quad X^2 = 7.50 \quad P \quad .05$

class held significantly lower aspirations than the stayers. This fact may be questioned based on the highest class of aspirations; however, more of the stayers desired some college and more of the terminals aspired to a high school education. Further caution is generated by the disproportional number of non-responses among the stayer class.

In summary, the educational orientations of stayers appear to be higher than those of either the terminal or returnee sets. Indeed, stayers had better backgrounds, but fewer of them had previous special training. All the above facts may account for the stayers higher level plans and aspirations for further education as opposed to those of returnees and terminals.

Social Orientations

Family Orientations

The difficulties encountered in assessing the strength of social orientations have already been discussed but certain basic data along with the three dependent variables listed earlier provide some idea of differences in orientations of the successful and unsuccessful relocated Mexican-Americans being studied. Very little difference occurred between stayers and returnees with regard to marital status (see Table 8). Most in both groups were married in contrast to the terminal group which contained a majority of single men. The difference in the stayer and terminal distributions, however, was

Table 8. Relocatee Status Two Years After Relocation by Marital Status at Time of Relocation

Marital Status	Stayers (N=31)	Terminal (N=14)	Returnees (N=43)
Single	35.5 %	57.1 %	30.2 %
Married	64.5	42.9	69.8
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0
Unusable	1	0	1

$D_{S-R} = .053 \quad X^2 = .20 \quad NS$

$D_{S-T} = .216 \quad X^2 = 1.79 \quad NS$

Table 9. Relocatee Status Two Years After Relocation by Number of Dependents at Time of Relocation for Married Respondents

Number of Dependents		Stayers (N=20)	Terminal (N=6)	Returnees (N=30)
Wife Only	1	15.0%	0.0%	16.6%
	2	25.0	16.7	40.0
	3	30.0	16.7	13.3
	4	10.0	33.3	16.7
	5 or more	20.0	33.3	16.7
TOTAL		100.0	100.0	99.9
Unusable		12	8	14

$D_{S-R} = .166 \quad X^2 = 1.32 \quad NS$

$D_{S-T} = .367 \quad X^2 = 2.48 \quad NS$

not significant.

Of these relocaters who were married most had at least one dependent child, but no significant differences occur between the stayer and returnee group (see Table 9). The proportion of returnees with one dependent other than the wife compared with the percentage of stayers in that class seems to be important. We assume that the category just mentioned consists primarily of young families with one small child, but it might consist of dependents other than children such as those of the relocaters parents or other relatives. The latter case would indicate a strong social orientation.

Residential Orientations

The living patterns of all relocaters before they moved to the receiving community can also be an indicator of the degree of intensity of social ties between the respondent and his friends and relatives. Upon examination, however, we find that a majority (over 60 percent of each class) lived rent free with friends and relatives with no significant differences occurring (see Table 10). A larger portion of the stayers than returnees had either owned a home or were buying one in the sending community which is as predicted by the framework being used.

Community Orientations

The tie between the relocatees and the residential community where he originates from is an extension of his residential

orientation; therefore, measures of the relocatees attachment to the community serve as indicators of the social orientations of the individuals involved. An excellent means for assessing the respondents attachment to the sending community is through analyzing the frequency of visitation to the sending area. Unfortunately, this data is available only for the stayer and terminals and then only for those who were still working after six months and who could be located for interviews. Of those few who did respond to the visitation question, the terminals tended to visit South Texas more frequently than the stayers (see Table 11). The largest category maintained by either of the two classes was visiting once every one or two months, but the percentages in that category were quite different. All five of the terminals visited at least once every other month while over half the stayers visited less often than once every three months. Even though the stayer and terminal distributions were significantly different, the visitation data must be considered to be highly questionable because over sixty percent of the terminals were nonrespondents and over fifteen percent of the stayers did not respond. Most of the terminal nonrespondents left the program during the first six months while stayers usually either did not know or were not interviewed six months after relocating because of difficulty in finding new addresses.

The final means for evaluating the relocatees attachment to the sending community is through a set of choices made under different

Table 10. Relocatee Status Two Years After Relocation by Housing Arrangements Before Entering the Training Program

Housing Arrangements	Stayer (N=31)	Terminal (N=14)	Returnee (N=42)
Own Home Outright	3.2%	7.1%	4.8%
Buying Home	12.9	7.1	7.1
Renting Home	22.6	7.1	23.8
Living Rent Free with Friends or Relatives	61.3	78.7	64.3
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0
Unusable	1	0	2

$D_{S-R} = .042 \quad X^2 = .13 \quad NS$

$D_{S-T} = .174 \quad X^2 = 1.17 \quad NS$

Table 11. Relocatee Status Two Years After Relocation by Frequency of Visitation During the First Six Months After Relocation

Frequency of Visitation	Stayer (N=27)	Terminal (N=5)
Never	3.7%	0%
Once in Six Months	29.6	0
Once every 3-4 Months	29.6	0
Once every 1-2 Months	33.3	80.0
More than once per Month	3.7	20.0
TOTAL	99.9	100.0
Unusable	5	9

$D_{S-T} = .608 \quad X^2 = 6.28 \quad P \quad .05$

hypothetical situations. The respondents were asked if they would accept a job with LTV were they to build a plant in South Texas even if wage rates were lower. Table 12 presents percentage frequencies of the point where the respondent first refused the South Texas job. We would expect relocatees with the strongest social ties to the sending community to accept much lower wage rates than those who were not attached to that area. The data reveal, however, that the stayer set is more willing to accept lower wages than either of the other classes. In fact, the stayer distribution was significantly different from that of the returnee set in the opposite direction from that predicted by the framework. All three sets of respondents would take the hypothetical job most frequently until the wage difference between South Texas and Dallas reached 50¢ per hour.

As with other variables, a number of cautions must be observed in analyzing this finding. First of all the questions were not asked identically to both the cohort and returnee classes. The May cohort was essentially given several choices while the returnees were asked to accept or refuse only, and not all of the returnee group were asked the question. Furthermore, the question will not be valid for the present framework if termination involved a negative association with LTV.

In summary, the data presented on social orientations are too limited and too qualified to be significant. Only thin threads of evidence are of any utility to this analysis. Married men with one dependent other than his wife tend to return most often while

Table 12. Relocatee Status Two Years After Relocation by Community Residential Preference Shifts at Different Hourly Wage Levels

First Wage Difference Point of Refusing the Hypothetical Job	Stayers (N=31)	Terminal (N=14)	Returnees (N=30)
Equal Pay	12.9%	7.1%	20.0%
25¢/hr less in South Texas	22.6	7.1	33.3
50¢/hr less in South Texas	29.0	57.2	46.6
75¢/hr less in South Texas	22.6	14.3	0
Prefer sending community at all four pay scale differences	12.9	14.3	0
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0
Omitted	1	0	14

$D_{S-R} = .354 \quad X^2 = 7.64 \quad P \quad .05$

$D_{S-T} = .213 \quad X^2 = 1.74 \quad NS$

terminals tended to maintain several dependents. Returnees visited more regularly during the first six months in the receiving community than stayers, yet the returnees turn down a hypothetical job with LTV in South Texas at lower pay differentials than stayers.

Hierarchy of Social Objects

While the data discussed to this point can be used in a very fragmentary way to assess the emphasis of one type orientation over another by the relocatee the most accurate means for evaluating the total framework is by having respondents rank a number of social objects such as job, education, income, material possessions, community, family, and leisure time. By the hypothesis stated earlier stayers should rank objects of utility above objects of identity while returnees should place greater emphasis on identity objects rather than utility objects.

In this analysis, occupation and education were used as utility oriented objects, and family was used as the primary object of identity. Since seven items were ordered each object could have a value from one to eight. Comparison of mean ranks of the three items being considered (see Table 13) indicates that returnees placed greater emphasis on job and education than the the stayers. Returnees, however, did place much greater emphasis on the family than either of the other sets.

For a better view of the relation between job, education and family according to the rankings, a scale was developed (see Hierarchy of Social Objects, page 40). Again, we expect stayers to place more value on occupation and education and therefore have a higher score, and returnees should have lower scores emphasizing the family. Analysis of the three group scores, however, reveal that stayers place fairly random emphasis on each variable (see Table 14). The returnees emphasize both identity and utility variables thus having a large percentage fall in the middle range of the scale. The terminal class, contrary to suspicion, is skewed toward the occupation education end of the scale.

In summary, the returnees do place strong emphasis on the family but also on the job and education while stayers follow no particular pattern of preference in regard to the three variables. The terminals emphasize utility objects; however, we must be very cautious about drawing conclusions from these data. First, all the ranks used were collected sometime after relocation and even sometime returning to the sending community, so their rankings could be affected by the relocation project or other intervening factors. Though they can be accounted for, the large number of unusables is a primary source of concern over the reliability of these data. Most of the stayer and terminal omissions simply could not be located eighteen months after they moved to the Dallas area, and the question was added in the latter stages of returnee interviewing.

Table 13. Relocatee Status Two Years After Relocation by Mean Rank of Three Social Objects

Social Object	Mean Rank		
	Stayers (N=24)	Terminals (N=5)	Returnees (N=7)
Job	2.4	1.7	2.3
Education	3.5	2.3	3.0
Family	4.0	4.7	1.7

(No statistical performed)

Table 14. Relocatee Status Two Years After Relocation by Value Hierarchy Scores

Value Hierarchy Score		Stayer (N=24)	Terminal (N=5)	Returnee (N=7)
Strong emphasis on family	0	4.2%	0%	0%
	1	16.7	0	0
	2	8.3	0	14.3
	3	16.7	40.0	28.6
	4	12.5	0	28.6
	5	4.2	0	14.3
	6	20.8	20.0	0
	7	4.2	0	14.3
Strong emphasis on education & occupation	8	12.5	40.0	0
TOTAL		100.1	100.0	100.1
Unusable		8	9	37

$D_{S-R} = .232 \quad X^2 = 1.17$

$D_{S-T} = .292 \quad X^2 = 1.41$

CONCLUSIONS

Sound empirical conclusions are seldom drawn from any post-factum analyses, but such studies including this one usually lead to many new projections about the variables involved. With the limited knowledge available about the process of adjusting manpower to meet the needs of different communities such projections can be the bench marks for future research.

In this thesis, success in a manpower training-relocation program was proposed to be related to the general value orientation of the relocating workers. More specifically, ' a person subscribing to the universalistic-achievement value orientation set should be more likely to be trained and relocated successfully than an individual following the particularistic-ascriptive value orientation patterns.' This proposition can neither be fully accepted nor rejected based on the data used for this analysis. Certain patterns exist which support the proposition but only a very few of the specific alternative hypotheses set forth were upheld by statistical tests, and a number of limitations seriously affect the interpretation of all the data. The data analyzed on occupational orientations seem to oppose the framework presented above. Instead of desiring extremely high status occupations most of the relocatees preferred or desired to have moderate level occupations. These men, however, may simply be adjusting their aspirations to be more compatible with what they can logically expect to attain. Individuals with strong

achievement orientations may view a labor mobility program as a means to other higher level opportunities and, therefore, leave the job with LTV for a better one. Indeed, they may use the skilled level job to get access to sufficient economic resources to enter the occupation that they really desire. Such an orientation, however, does not coincide with the findings of Guest (1954), who concluded that most assembly line workers do not desire jobs that would give them higher status.

The data studied here suggest that there may be a particular set of values associated with each of several classes of jobs as the stayers tended to have occupational orientations similar to the job they got at the LTV plant. Returnees, on the otherhand, sought quite different jobs. Of course, previous experience may play a significant role in the individuals occupational aspirations. Those relocatees who had jobs similar to the one at LTV were more likely to be stayers than returnees. This supports the anticipatory socialization model (Ellis and Lane, 1963) discussed earlier.

The data on education orientations suggest that successful relocatees may place greater value on education than those who do not remain in the program. This supports Haller and Sewell's (1967) finding that boys who plan to migrate seek more education. Successful migration may, then, depend on the migrants willingness to accept education as a means to social mobility. For Mexican-Americans this may also mean the acceptance of a traditional Anglo opportunity

structure - a structure that in the past has often remained closed to most Mexican-Americans.

Even though many educational structures have been closed to Mexican-Americans in the past, the educational orientations studied seem to indicate that some of the relocatees see promise in a new orientation toward education. They may see special training as a means to more rapid means to social mobility. In fact, these men may not value education at all but may place great emphasis on short term training as an object of utility that will afford more income and therefore higher social status. Either conclusion supports the major proposition of this thesis.

On the otherhand, these data may be tapping a related value orientation. Schwarzweller (1959) found that educational aspirations among students were inversely related to a value for security. The openness of successful relocatees to education may be reflecting the fact that they do not place great value on security. As noted above, education has not traditionally been completely open to Mexican-Americans; therefore, placing high value on education as a means for social mobility is not a very secure position. Logically, then, Mexican-Americans who place great value on security would not spend his energy seeking education. This projection is further supported by Miller and Zeller's (1967) finding that successful members of a training program tend to feel that they have control over events that might affect them. This factor could have great

importance since the relocating firm is an aircraft industry. As noted in the Introduction, the aircraft industry normally has a very high annual turnover rate. The structure of the industry is such that a firm may have many jobs for several months or years then have very few jobs. Needless to say, a person who valued security quite highly would not be extremely satisfied in such a firm.

The data on previous special training relate to the above discussion as more of the returnees than stayers had previous special training. This implies that education has not led to job security for some of the relocatees in the past.

Several of the measures used to assess social orientations appear to stress the importance of security in relocation. First, single relocatees and those with new families return more often than those individuals with more established family relationships. The former two types were considered to be in periods of their life cycle when forming and maintaining social ties are important, thus those groups would be expected to be more ascriptively oriented than the group where such relationships have already been defined. Similarly, the stayer group tended to have been buying homes before relocation more often than returnees, again indicating progress in their life cycle past establishing social relationships; indeed ten of the stayers were buying homes in the Dallas ares by June, 1970. Finally, and the most convincing of all the social orientation data

that the major proposition of this thesis is valid, terminals tended to visit the South Texas area more frequently than did the stayers during the first six months after relocation. This suggests that strong ties pulled the terminals back to the sending community very frequently.

Of course, the same data might be interpreted to indicate that some of the stayers might simply be economically tied to the receiving community and unable to leave for fear of losing economic security, or that stayer had their extended families relocate with them (19 of the 32 stayers indicated that they had relatives in the Dallas area in June of 1969). Likewise, the returnee data might be describing the class of people most in need of assistance yet least able to effectively utilize the opportunity. These two alternatives are not pursued in more detail because of their qualitative nature.

The social orientation data may be pointing out a missing factor with regard to social orientations. Some relocatees may have strong social orientations but receive support for migration from their friends in the sending community. Such support would seem to produce a more stable migration process and, therefore, ease the tension normally associated with migration. This extended type social structure which supports migration is discussed by Sussman and Surchinal (1962a and b) and is empirically supported by Crawford (1966).

Regardless of the nature of the relationship between social orientations and migration, the fact remains that the family structure of the relocated worker plays a vital role in relocation process. Furthermore, it seems that as the primary socializing agent the extended family is a most important legitimizer for the means used by family members to gain social mobility. Once legitimization occurs the relocatee can begin to cope with immediate problems of relocation (i.e., training and the job).

The most difficult and yet the most important finding to explain is that regarding the hierarchy of social objects. The two sets of data seem to contradict themselves with one supporting and one opposing the major proposition of this thesis. First, the mean ranks of the three items used suggests that infact the returnees place more importance on social relationships than do the stayers, but the eight point scale suggests that proportionally more stayers than returnees single out the family variable over occupation and education.

Two factors may help to explain why stayers do not place greater emphasis on occupation and education and less emphasis on family than do returnees. First of all, this data were collected eighteen months after relocation for the stayers and after returning to the supply area for the returnees. The value patterns reflected may have been modified by the urban experience or by a crisis which set off the returning behavior. Second, the meaning

of the statements that were ranked may have been interpreted differently from what they were intended to mean. To raise a family probably does not deal with valued extended family identification as strongly as was intended. Another item should have been added to elicit the relocatees orientation toward his extended family relationship. In fact, several items should have been added to the rank order list to increase the validity of the scale.

In summary, the relationship between value orientations and labor mobility must be evaluated as several analytical entities. Each analytical unit must be considered separately and as a composite unit simultaneously. Apparently value orientations are not purely cumulative but are step-type functions. There are interfaces between the major segments and some of the minor value segments as well. Two factors point to lack of mobility: a strong dependency on some structural component of the sending situation without that component's support for mobility; and blockages preventing the relocatee from accepting education as a means to social mobility. Individuals in these two situations appear to be trapped in the poverty cycle. Other factors may also prove to be adjustment blocks but they are not apparent from this research.

IMPLICATIONS

From the data analyzed here the framework used in this analysis is obviously too simplex for predicting potential successful relocatees. Drawing all the conclusions together into a single theoretical design we must once again return to the process that the relocatee goes through. First, the relation between the relocatee and the sending community must be evaluated. The community can be analytically divided into several social objects. First among these is the family structure of the individual involved. The value that the migrant places on the extended family, coupled with the support that the relocatee receives for migration from extended family members, is the first key factor in predicting whether or not the relocatee will stay in the receiving community and more importantly even if he stays whether he will feel that he is better off. Furthermore, the support that the migrant receives from the social objects in the community, coupled with the value that the migrant places on these social objects, will influence his adjustment.

Having evaluated the prospects potential for relocation, we can consider how mobility can best be directed. This step involves evaluating the prospects orientation toward education. Some people may value traditional education more than new methods. Those who do not value education highly should be channeled into a short-range program where they learn a skill then are no longer required

to participate in classroom settings to learn new factors. The primary importance of understanding the individual's orientation toward different types of education is to discover how well the relocatee will be able to use the opportunity structures that are available in the particular industry that he will be entering.

Once the migrants values toward the sending community and education are established then his values toward the proposed work situation need to be evaluated. This may be handled partially through interest inventories but needs to be approached more directly at the same time. The nature of the workers desire to achieve higher levels should be explored. Also important here are specific occupational value orientations such as those studied by Schwarzweller (1959). The worker who values service to society more than working with his hands, for instance, probably will not be satisfied as an assembly line worker.

Along with the workers job values his values toward other objects in the receiving community must be evaluated. Here again family and social orientations become important. Community values can play a major role how well the relocated family will adjust to the receiving unit.

The major implication this research has for future studies is that direct measures of value orientations need to be developed before any major theoretical conclusions can be reached. Values have been equated with a wide range of variables including everything from overt behavior to aspirations to attitudes. Part of

this problem lies in the fact that a satisfactory empirical definition cannot be agreed on by the many researchers studying values; the concept of value has diametrical meanings in various disciplines. Since manpower analysis extends across several disciplines a universal definition is essential to the use of values as a concept relevant to manpower distribution and adjustment.

With adequate measures of value, social scientists can begin to evaluate the framework presented in this analysis. Each segment of the framework should be viewed separately then all elements should be analyzed as a single entity. Larger samples than the one used in this analysis should be used to discover the influence of each item on the dependent measures, but until adequate measures are developed in-depth studies using small samples and non-parametric methods of analysis seem to be the best way to understand processes such as manpower adjustment.

Analysis of values should be attached to all types of manpower development and dispersion programs. The effect of variations in value orientations on programs such as technical training, migrant education and other basic education programs needs to be explored. Knowledge of variation in value orientations among different types of workers (i.e., professional and assembly workers) is necessary as a base for understanding how value orientations and the work structure are interwined. Follow-up analysis on youth studies will help show how values affect the process of selecting a given job. All these types of research are necessary

for any understanding of the relationship between values and the work structure.

Likewise, extensive research is needed on the relationship of values to the migration structure. We have advanced to the point that demographers can tell who is most likely to migrate, so social psychologists should be able to begin trying to explain why these people move and to understand the process that most of then undergo during migration. More specifically, the relationship between family orientations and migration should be considered. This includes analyses of the change in family structure over time as well as family support for migration.

Some fairly extensive studies have been made of the integration of migrants into new communities, but little effort has gone into understanding the role that values play in a new residents integration into a community. The use of community preference scales may provide a needed measure of full integration into a new community. The roles that job, education, and family ties play in the integration of new residents needs more attention.

Of course, neither manpower analysis nor migration is a static concept so longitudinal analyses will be necessary to discover dynamics of these structures and processes. Most important of these are studies of responses of relocated workers to crises. Many of the workers in the program analyzed in this thesis were recently laid off their jobs for instance. The responses of these

workers will now be the ultimate test of training relocation programs. These reponses need to be recorded for reference in designing similar programs.

There are a number of factors which may be of great use to policy makers designing new relocation programs. Since this research was oriented toward developing predictors of successful relocation those factors which proved to be significantly related to success in the program should be considered as key predictive factors in future development of similar programs. The importance of social support for participation in any program aimed at raising the status of people appears to be of vital importance to many of the "anti-poverty" programs.

One outstanding flaw in current policy toward demonstration projects of all kinds stands out vividly in this thesis. Most evaluative research projects begin well after the demonstration project begins. This stems both from the researchers indifference to policy and the policy makers indifference toward research. The problem usually results in the research phase of a program not having substantive data to generalize from and policy makers not having generalizations on which to make a policy. Involvement of experiment station researchers in the evaluation of project proposals would perhaps lead to more productivity for both the researcher and the policy maker.

In summary value orientations play a central role in the adjustment of any individual to a new situation; however, the variability in the definition of the value orientation concept has hindered its use in developing action programs. The lack of consistent definition of the concept has impeded its quantification without which the concept is of little scientific use. The crude methods used in this analysis have shown that value orientations can be topped and that they do play a vital role in the adjustment process, but more extensive research is needed to develop accurate measures. The relationship between value orientations and aspirations is virtually unexplored; furthermore, we know little about aspirations of adults. The use of the hierarchy of social objects was quite fruitful in this analysis but needs further study. The explicitness of the social objects used, as well as the number of objects ranked, needs further research.

From the program developer's point of view, the findings of this analysis makes several suggestions for action. First, the researcher should be involved in the program from its inception developing means for evaluating the relocatees values. Since accurate screening methods based on value orientations have not been developed the program director could work with the potential relocatee in deciding whether he should move. Two major questions might be asked of those responsible for a program:

1. Does the potential relocatee have enough information about the receiving community to compare with his present situation;
2. Does the information that the potential relocatee has provide an accurate picture of the life he will lead in the receiving community.

The respondent needs information about the structure of the receiving community, the structure of the company for which he will work, the services available and the problems he might encounter. All of this information is vital to the potential relocatee in matching his value orientations with the situation in the receiving community.

The American Society is the most mobile society of the world, both socially and physically. If it is to remain among the leaders of social mobility we must concern ourselves with an efficient means of allocating and relocating manpower between different segments of the economy. To be effective, manpower policy must consider the individuals involved in the execution of that policy. Any consideration of individuals must invalue the basic values of that actor; therefore, the study of values and manpower is a topic for the future of both policy makers and researchers alike.

REFERENCES

Anderson, W. A.
1953 "High school youth and the values in rural living." Rural Sociology 18 (June):156-163.

Beal, George M., and Rex H. Warland
1966 "Value orientations and farm policy behavior." Paper presented at the Rural Sociological Society Meeting in Miami Beach, Florida, August.

Bidwell, Charles E.
1966 "Values, norms, and the integration of complex social systems." Sociological Quarterly 7 (Spring):119-136.

Bishop, C. E.
1958 Agricultural Adjustment Problems in a Growing Economy, Ames: Iowa State College Press.

1967 "The people left behind." Seminar on Manpower Policy and Program in Washington, D.C.

Blevins, Audie
1969 "Migration in southern cities: a push-pull analysis." Social Science Quarterly 50 (September):337-353.

Blue, John T.
1969 "Rationale for planned and assisted relocation in the United States." Paper presented to the Symposium on the Role of Worker Relocation in an Active Manpower Policy sponsored by the International Manpower Institute in Washington, D.C., April 9-11.

Bock, E. Wilbur, and Sugiyama Iutaka
1969 "Rural-urban migration and social mobility: the controversy on Latin America." Rural Sociology 34 (September):343-350.

Brown, James S.
1952 "The conjugal family and the extended family group." American Sociological Review 17 (June):297-306.

1968 "The family behind the migrant." Mountain Life and Work (September):4-7.

Brown, James S., Harry K. Schwarzweller, and Joseph J. Mangalam
1963 "Kentucky mountain migration and the stem family: and American variation on a theme by Le Play." Rural Sociology 28 (March):48-69.

Burma, John H. (ed.)
1970 Mexican-Americans in the United States. Cambridge: Schenkman.

Burchinal, Lee G. and Ward W. Bauder
1965 "Farm migrants adapt to city life." Iowa Farm Science 19 (February):123-125.

Champion, Dean J.
1970 Basic Statistics for Social Research. Scranton, Pennsylvania: Chandler Publishing Company.

Choldin, Harvey M., and Grafton D. Trout, Jr.
1969 Mexican-Americans in Transition: Migration and Employment in Michigan Cities. Department of Sociology, Rural Manpower Center, Agricultural Experiment Station, Michigan State University (July).

Crawford, Charles O.
1966 "Family attachment, family support for migration and migration plans of young people." Rural Sociology 31 (September):293-300.

Crockett, H. J., Jr.
1962 "The achievement motive and differential occupational mobility in the United States." American Sociological Review 27 (April):191-204.

Davis, Charles (project director)
1966 Proposal for Labor Mobility Demonstration Project August 1, 1967 to July 31, 1968. North Carolina Fund.

Davis, Charles, Myrtle Smith, and Jack Nichols
1969 "Panel presentation-selected worker relocation in the United States." Symposium on the Role of Workers Relocation in an Active Manpower Policy, International Manpower Institute (April 9-11), Washington, D.C.

Dobriner, William M.
1969 Social Structures and Systems: A Sociological Overview. Pacific Palisades, California: Goodyear Publishing Company.

Dynes, Russell
1956a "Level of occupational aspirations: some aspects of family experience as a variable." American Sociological Review 21 (April):212-215.

1956b "Rurality, migration, and sectarianism." Rural Sociology 21 (March):25-28.

Freedman, Ronald and Deborah Freedman
1956 "Farm reared elements in the nonfarm population." Rural Sociology 21 (March):50-61.

Fuller, Varden
1969 "Rural and urban development should be coordinated." Manpower 1 (January):31-32.

1970 Rural Worker Adjustment to Urban Life: An Assessment of the Research. Ann Arbor, Michigan: Institute of Labor and Industrial Relations.

Gladden, James W. and John R. Christiansen
1956 "Emergence of urban values in mining families in Eastern Kentucky." Rural Sociology 21 (June):135-139.

Graves, Theodore D.
1966 "Alternative models for the study of urban migration." Human Organization 25 (Winter):295-299.

Graves, Theodore D. and Minor Van Arsdale
1966 "Values, expectations, and relocation: the Navaho migrant to Denver." Human Organization 25 (Winter):300-307.

Grebler, Leo, Joan W. Moore, and Ralph C. Guzman
1970 The Mexican-American People: The Nation's Second Largest Minority. New York: The Free Press.

Guest, R. H.
1959 "Work careers and aspirations of automobile workers." American Sociological Review 19 (April):155-163.

Ellis, R. A., and W. C. Lane
1963 "Structural supports for upward mobility." American Sociological Review 28 (October):743-756.

Haller, A. O.
1959 "Research problems on the occupational achievement levels of farm-reared people." Rural Sociology 23 (September) 321-333.

Haller, A. O., and I. W. Miller
1963 The Occupational Aspiration Scale: Theory, Structure, and Correlates. East Lansing: Michigan Agricultural Experiment Station.

Haller, A. O., and W. H. Sewell
1957 "Farm residence levels of educational and occupational aspirations." The American Journal of Sociology 62 (January):407-411.

1967 "Occupational choices of Wisconsin farm boys." Rural Sociology 32 (March):37-55.

Heady, Earl O.
1949 "Basic economic and welfare aspects of farm technological advance." Journal of Farm Economics (May):293.

Heller, Celia S.
1966 Mexican-American Youth" Forgotten Youth at the Crossroads. New York: Random House

1967 "Class as an explanation of ethnic differences in mobility aspirations: the case of Mexican-Americans." The International Migration Review 2 (Fall):31-39.

Hyman, Herbert H.
1966 "The value systems of different classes." In Bendix and Lipset (ed.) Class, Status, and Power. New York: The Free Press.

Iowa State University Center for Agricultural and Economic Adjustment
1961 Labor Mobility and Population in Agriculture. Ames, Iowa: Iowa State University Press.

Jitodai, Ted H.
1963 "Migration and kinship contacts." Pacific Sociological Review 6 (Fall):49-55.

Johnson, Cyrus M. and Alan C. Kerckhoff
1964 "Family norms and the value of change." Social Forces 43 (December): 149-156.

Jones, T. Morris
1968 "Deciding to move: the process and associated characteristics for rural families in Tennessee low-income areas." Unpublished Masters Thesis, University of Tennessee.

Juarez, Rumaldo F.
1968 "Educational status orientations of Mexican-American and Anglo-American youth in selected low-income counties of Texas." An unpublished Master of Science Thesis, Texas A&M University.

Killian, Lewis M.
1953 "The adjustment of southern white migrants to northern urban norms." Social Forces 32 (October):66-69.

Kluckhohn, Clyde and Others
1954 "Values and value orientations in the theory of actions." Pp. 387-433 in Parsons and Shils (ed.) Toward a General Theory of Action. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.

Kluckhohn, Florence and Fred Strodback
1961 Variations in Value Orientations. Evanston, Illinois: Row Peterson.

Kuvlesky, William P.
1966 "The social psychological dimensions of occupational mobility." Paper presented at the National Vocational-Technical Education Seminar on Occupational Mobility and Migration sponsored by the Center for Research Training and Occupational Education, Raleigh, North Carolins State University, April.

Kuvlesky, William P. and Robert C. Bealer
1966 "A clarification of the concept 'occupational choice.'" Rural Sociology 31 (September):265-276.

Kuvlesky, William P.,and David H. Reynolds
1970a "Occupational aspirations and expectation of youth: a bibliography of research literature, I." Departmental Information Report 70-4. Department of Agricultural Economics and Rural Sociology, Texas A&M University (December).

1970b "Educational aspirations and expectations of youth: a bibliography of research literature, II." Departmental Information Report 70-5. Department of Agricultural Economics and Rural Sociology, Texas A&M University (December).

1970c "Youth's projections for residence, income, and family status: a bibliography of research literature, III." Departmental Information Report 70-6. Department of Agricultural Economics and Rural Sociology, Texas A&M University (December).

Kuvlesky, William P., and W. Kennedy Upham
1967 "Social ambitions of teen-age boys living in an economically depressed area of the South: a racial comparison." Paper presented at the Southern Sociological Society meeting, Atlanta, Georgia, March 30.

Kuvlesky, William P. and Sherry Wages
1970 "Differences in the occupational and educational projections of Mexican-American high school students and dropout age peers." A paper presented at the Southwestern Sociological Association Meeting, Dallas. (March).

Kuvlesky, William P., and David E. Wright, and Rumaldo Z. Juarez
1971 "Status projections and ethnicity; a comparison of Mexican-American, Negro, and Anglo youth," Vocational Behavior 1 (April):137-151.

Lane, W. Clayton, and Robert A. Ellis
1968 "Social mobility and anticipatory socialization." Pacific Sociological Review 11 (Spring):5-14.

Levy, Marion J., Jr.
1952 The Structure of Society. Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Press.

Lipset, S. M.
1955 "Social mobility and urbanization." Rural Sociology 20 (September-December):220-228.

Loomis, Charles P.
1960 Social Systems. Essay on Their Persistence and Change, Princeton, New Jersey: D. Van Nostrand.

McClelland, David C.
1961 The Achieving Society. New York: The Free Press.

McWilliams, Carey
1949 North From Mexico: the Spanish Speaking People of the United States. New York: J. B. Lippincott.

Madsen, William
1964 Mexican-Americans of South Texas. New York: Holt Rinehard and Winston.

Maitland, Sheridan T. and Stanley M. Knebel
1968 "Rural to urban transition." Monthly Labor Review 91 (June): 28-52.

Middleton, Russell and Charles M. Grigg
1958 "Rural urban differences in aspirations." Rural Sociology 24 (December):347-354.

Miller, Robert W., and Frederick A. Zeler
1967 "Social psychological factors associated with responses to retraining." The Institute for Labor Studies Research Series No. 2. Morgantown: West Virginia University.

Morris, Richard T.
1956 "A typology of norms." American Sociological Review 21 (October):610-613.

Moss, Joel J.
1956 "Newcomer family acceptance-rejection of the community and the process of assimilation." Rural Sociology 21 (September): 302-306.

Obordo, Angelita S.
1968 "Status orientations toward family development: a racial comparison of adolescent girls from low income rural areas." An unpublished Master's thesis: Department of Agricultural Economics and Sociology, Texas A&M University (January).

Ohlendorf, George W.
1967 "Educational orientations of rural youth in selected low income counties of Texas." Unpublished Master of Science Thesis at Texas A&M University.

Okun, Arthur M.
1965 The Battle Against Unemployment. New York: W. W. Norton.

Omari, Thompson P.
1956 "Factors associated with urban adjustment of rural migrants." Social Forces 35 (October):47-53.

Parsons, Talcott
1951 The Social System. New York: The Free Press.

1967 Sociological Theory and Modern Society. New York: The Free Press.

Parsons, Talcott, and Edward A. Shils (ed.)
1951 Toward A General Theory of Action. New York: Harper and Row.

Payne, R.
1956 "Development of occupational and migration expectations and choices among urban small town, and rural adolescent boys." Rural Sociology 21 (June):117-125.

Penalosa, Fernando
1967 "The changing Mexican-American in southern California." Sociology and Social Research 51 (July):405-517.

Penalosa, Fernando, and E. C. McDonagh
1966 "Social mobility in a Mexican-American community." Social Forces 44 (June):498-504.

Ramsey, Charles E., Robert A. Polson, and George E. Spencer
1959 "Values and the adaption of practices." Rural Sociology 24 (March):35-47.

Rees, Albert
1965 "Dimensions of the employment problem." pp 23-31 in Arthur Okum (ed.), The Battle Against Unemployment. New York: W. W. Norton.

Reynolds, Loyd George and Joseph Shister
1949 Job Horizons: A Study of Job Satisfaction and Labor Mobility. New York: Harper.

Rodman, Hyman
1963 "The lower class value stretch." Social Forces 42 (December):205-215.

Rogers, Everett M., and Hand Sebald
1962 "A distinction between familism, family integration, and kinship orientation." Marriage and Family Living 24 (February):25-30.

Rokeach, Milton
1969 Beliefs, Attitudes, and Values: A Theory of Organization and Change. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.

Rosen, B. C.
1956 "The achievement syndrome: a psychocultural dimension of social stratification." American Sociological Review 21 (April):203-211.

1959 "Race, ethnicity, and the achievement syndrome." American Sociological Review 24 (February):47-60.

Rowan, Hellen
1968 "The Mexican-American." Paper prepared for the U.S. Commission on Civil Rights.

Rutman, Gilbert L.
1970 "Migration and economic opportunities in West Virginia: a statistical analysis." Rural Sociology 35 (June):206-217.

Salazar, Ruben
1970 "Stranger in one's land." U. S. Commission on Civil Rights Clearinghouse Publication No. 19 (May).

Saldana, Nancy
1969 "Mexican-Americans in the Midwest: an annotated bibliography." Rural Manpower Center Special Report No. 10 (July).

Schmidt, Fred H.
1969 Spanish Surnamed American Employment in the Southwest. Colorado Civil Rights Commission, Equal Employment Opportunity Commission.

Schnore, Leo F.
1966 "The rural-urban variable: an urbanites perspective." Rural Sociology 31 (June):131-143.

Schulze, Rold, Jay Artis, and J. Allan Beegle
1963 "The measurement of community satisfaction and the decision to migrate." Rural Sociology 28 (September): 279-283.

Schwarzweller, Harry K.
1959 "Value orientations in educational and occupational choices." Rural Sociology 24 (September):246-256.

1960 "Values and occupational choice." Social Forces 39 (December):126-135.

Schwarzweller, Harry K., and John F. Seggar
1967 "Kinship involvement: a factor in the adjustment of rural migrants." Journal of Marriage and the Family 29 (November):662-671.

Scudder, Richard, and C. Arnold Anderson
1954 "Migration and vertical occupational mobility." American Sociological Review 19 (June):329-334.

Servin, Manual P.
1970 The Mexican-Americans: An Awakening Minority. Beverly Hills: Glencoe Press.

Sewell, W. H., and A. M. Orenstein
1965 "Community of residence and occupational choice." American Journal of Sociology 70 (March):551-563.

Shannon, Lyle W., and Elaine Krass
1964 "The economic absorption of immigrant laborers in a northern industrial community." The American Journal of Economics and Sociology 23 (January):65-84.

Shannon, Lyle W., and Kathryn Lettau
1963 "Measuring the adjustment of immigrant laborers." Social Science Quarterly 44 (September):139-148.

Shannon, Lyle W., and Patricia Morgan
1966 "The prediction of economic absorption and cultural integration among Mexican-Americans, Negroes, and Anglos in a northern industrial community." Human Organization 25 (Summer):154-162.

Siegel, Sidney
1956 Non Parametric Statistics. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Simpson, R. L., and I. H. Simpson
1960 "Values, personal influence, and occupational choice." Social Forces 39 (December):116-125.

Slocum, W. L.
1967 "The influence of reference group values on educational aspirations of rural high school students." Rural Sociology 32 (September):269-277.

Smith, Eldon D.
1956 "Nonfarm employment information for rural people." Journal of Farm Economics (August):813-837.

Stoddard, Ellwyn R. (ed.)
1970 Comparative U. S.-Mexico Border Studies. Occasional Papers No. 1 of the Border State University Consortium for Latin America.

Sussman, Marvin B., and Lee Burchinal
1962a "Kin family network: unhearlded structure in current conceptualization of family functioning." Marriage and Family Living 24 (August):231-240.

1962b "Parental aid to married children: implications for family functioning." Marriage and Family Living 24 (November):320-332.

Tarver, James D.
1964 "Occupational migration differentials." Social Forces 43 (December):231-241.

Taylor, L., and C. W. Glasgow
1963 Occupations and Low-Income Rural People: A Southern Regional Study. Baton Rouge: Louisiana Agricultural Experiment Station, Southern Cooperative Series Bulletin 90 (December).

Thomas, Kathryn G.
1970 "Educational orientations of southern rural youth: an analysis of social economic status and racial differences." An unpublished Master's Thesis, Department of Sociology, The University of Kentucky (April).

Tilly, Charles
1965 Migration to an American City. Newark: University of Delaware Agricultural Experiment Station and Division of Urban Affairs.

Ulbarri, Horacio
1970 "Social and attitudinal characteristics of Spanish-speaking migrant and emmigrant workers in the Southwest." In John Burman (ed.), Mexican-Americans in the U.S. Cambridge: Schenkman.

United States Census
1960a "Population characteristics of the United States." Census of the Population 1. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office.

1960b "Persons of Spanish Surname," Census of the Population Subject Report PG2. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office.

United States Department of Labor
1967 Area Trends in Employment and Unemployment. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office.

Upham, W. Kennedy, and David E. Wright
1966 Poverty Among Spanish-Americans in Texas: Low Income Families in a Minority Group. Department of Agricultural Economics and Sociology, Texas A&M University, Information Report No. 66-2, (September).

Wages, Sherry, Kathryn Thomas, and William P. Kuvlesky
1969 "Mexican-American teenage school dropouts: reasons for leaving school and orientations toward subsequent educational attainment." A paper presented at the Southwestern Sociological Association Meetings, Houston (April).

Weiss, Robert S. and David Riesman
1961 Some issues in the future of leisure. Social Problems 9 (Summer):78-86.

Whyte, Donald R.
1967 "Social determinants of inter-community mobility: an inventory of findings." Canadian Review of Sociology and Anthropology 4 (February):1-23.

Williams, Robin
1970 American Society. New York: Alfred A. Knopf.

Windham, Gerald O.
1964 "pre-adult socialization and selected statue achievement variables." Social Forces 42 (May):456-461.

Wright, David E.
1968 Occupational Orientations of Mexican-American Youth in Selected Texas Counties. Unpublished Master's Thesis, Texas A&M University.

APPENDIX A

Basic Characteristic of the Sample

More than 91 percent of the sample were Mexican-American, but data relating to independent and dependent variables of this thesis were excluded for the few Anglo's in the sample. The mean age of the relocatees at the beginning of the program was 24.94 (see Table 15) compared to a median age of 19.5 for the area of Texas being sampled (United States Census, 1960a).[8] Most of the relocatees (60 percent were married before they relocated, while only slightly over 2 percent of the sample were separated or divorced) (see Table 16.) Slightly over 64 percent of the population in South Texas are married (United States Census, 1960a).

Table 15. Age Groupings of Total Sample at the Time of Relocation

Age	Sample (N=165)
1-20	12.12
21-25	52.73
26-30	20.61
31-35	11.52
36-40	3.03
TOTAL	100.01

[8] While the census age range does not compare with that of the sample, we get some idea of the selectivity of this program by comparing the two groups.

Table 16. Marital Status of Total Sample and South Texas Males With Spanish Surnames

Marital Status	Sample (N=168)	South Texas Spanish Males* (N=70,000)
Single	31.5	34.3
Married	66.1	61.4
Other	2.4	4.3
TOTAL	100	100

*Males 14 years old and over with Spanish surnames for the four county sending area (United States Census, 1960b)

A slightly greater proportion of the sample had no dependents with the distribution being skewed toward the categories of few dependents (see Table 17). This is conjunction with age indicates that the program involved many young families. A majority of the sample, however, had completed less than 12 years of public schooling (see Table 18). On the other hand, the median educational level for the sample was 10.6 years of school which is considerably higher than the 6.8 (United States Census, 1960a) median educational levels for males 25 and over of the four-county supply area.

Table 17. Number of Dependents for the Sample Population

Number of Dependents	Sample (169)
0	25.44
1	16.57
2	18.93
3	12.43
4	12.43
5 or more	14.20
TOTAL	100

Table 18. Years of School Completed for Sample Population and for South Texas Males with Spanish Surnames

Years of School Completed	Sample	South Texas Spanish Males* (N=78,000)
0	0 %	28.4
1-8	27.7	57.9
9-11	28.9	5.3
12-14	43.4	8.4
TOTAL	100	100

*Males 25 years old and over with Spanish surnames for the four-county area being studied (United States Census, 1960b)

Relocatees had been employed in many diverse occupations on their last regular job contrary to popular notion. Only about 17 percent of the respondents were employed in agriculturally oriented jobs which would lead us to suspect that only a small number of our sample were migrant farm workers (see Table 19) as can be seen the previous occupation distribution for the sample and the universe are quite different. This data may indicate that the characteristics of Mexican-Americans listed earlier may not be valid for our sample. Yet the data on the sample's last wage would indicate that most of the relocatees would be working-class people (see Table 20).

Table 19. Last Regular Employment for Sample Population and for South Texas Males

Occupation	Sample (N=169)	South Texas Males* (N=77,000)
Professional and Managerial	6.51	17.2
Clerical and Sales	13.02	9.1
Service	15.98	4.8
Farms, Fisheries and Forestry	13.02	27.0
Processing	4.14	00.0
Machine Trade	5.92	30.2
Bench Work	.59	00.0
Structural	12.43	00.0
Miscellaneous	28.40	11.7
TOTAL	100.01	100

*Employes males in the four county area studied (United States Census, 1960a)

Furthermore, nearly all the sample had been unemployed at least one week during the year prior to their entering the program. In fact, many had been unemployed from 10 to 20 weeks during that period and some had been out of work the entire 52 weeks (see Table 21).

Table 20. Last Wage for Sample Population

Wage	Sample (N=169)
$1.00 or less	9.47
$1.01 - 1.50	42.01
$1.51 - 2.00	33.14
$2.01 - 2.50	9.46
$2.50 or more	5.92
TOTAL	100

Table 21. Number of Weeks That Relocatees Had Been Unemployed During the Year Prior to Their Relocation

Weeks Unemployed	Sample
0	3.64
1-9	56.36
10-19	29.70
20-29	4.85
30-39	2.42
40-52	3.03
TOTAL	100

APPENDIX B

Original Classification Scale

The classification scale which was to be used originally resulted in some unusual distributions of data hindering analysis. The scale and distributions resulting from using this classification scheme are presented below. As can be seen, use of this scheme results in most of the responses falling in the moderate category for both job sought and occupational aspirations (see Tables 22 and 23).

Goal Level	Occupation
High	Professional, Technical, Kindred Glamour, Manager, Official, Farm Owner or Foreman
Moderate	Clerical, Sales, Skilled Workers
Low	Operative, Laborer, Domestic Service

Figure 8. Goal Level Categories Used in the Analysis of Occupational Orientations

Table 22. Respondents by Level of Job Sought

Level	(N=40)
High	2.5 %
Moderate	57.5
Low	40.0
TOTAL	100.0
Other	(6)

Table 23. Respondents by Level of Occupational Aspirations

Level	Respondents (N=34)
High	5.9 %
Moderate	91.2
Low	2.9
TOTAL	100.0
Other	(12)

APPENDIX C

Excerpts From the Research Instrument

The following indicators are presented exactly as they appeared in the questionnaires.

Questions from the Screening Questionnaire administered by the Texas Employment Commission:

2(b) What kind of work are you looking for?

_____

7(a) Which <u>one</u> statement best describes <u>your</u> housing arrangements?

Own home outright (free and clear) _____

Buying home (paying mortgage) _____

Renting or leasing home or apartment _____

Rent free _____

Questions from the one-month Follow-up Questionnaire administered by sociologists at Texas A&M University:

15(b) If LTV were to build a plant in South Texas, which area of the state would you prefer to live

(a) if the hourly pay were the same in both places:

Grand Prairie _____

South Texas _____

(b) if the hourly pay were 25¢ less in South Texas:

Grand Prairie _____

South Texas _____

(c) if the hourly pay were 50¢ less in South Texas:

Grand Prairie _____

South Texas _____

(d) if the hourly pay were 75¢ less in South Texas:

Grand Prairie _____

South Texas _____

22 Do you plan to continue in any LTV training or other adult night school courses?

_____

23 How much training and education would you like to have?

_____

41 If you could have your choice, what job would you most prefer to have?

_____

Question from the six month Follow-up Questionnaire administered by Sociologists at Texas A&M University:

14(b) How frequently do you maintain contact with your friends and relatives back in South Texas?

Letters _____

Visiting _____

Telephone _____

Other _____

Question from the eighteen month Follow-up Questionnaire administered by sociologists at Texas A&M University:

48 Of the items listed on the cards which item is most important to you, second, third, fourth, fifth, sixth, and seventh:

_____ to get the job I want most;

_____ to get all the education I want;

_____ to raise a family;

_____ to earn as much money as I can;

_____ to live in the kind of community I like best;

_____ to have the kind of house, car, furniture, and other things like I want;

_____ to have lots of free time to do what I want?

VITA

NAME: Michael Charles Kleibrink

BIRTH: September 4, 1946, Waco, Texas

PARENTS: August and Melba Kleibrink

WIFE: Linda Haught Kleibrink

SON: Trent Charles Kleibrink

EDUCATION: Texas A&M University - B.S. degree in Psychology, January, 1969

PROFESSIONAL: Alpha Kappa Delta, Rural Sociological Society, Southwest Society Science Association, Association of Southern Agricultural Workers, Texas Academy of Science

EMPLOYMENT: June 1968 - January 1969: Technical Assistant, Department of Agricultural Economics and Rural Sociology, Texas A&M University

February 1969 - May 1970: Research Assistant, Department of Agricultural Economics and Rural Sociology, Texas A&M University

June 1970 - : Research Associate, Department of Agricultural Economics and Rural Sociology, Texas A&M University

TYPIST: The typist for this thesis was Mrs. K. A. Manning.